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Shared Decision-Making in Selected Urban Elementary Schools: A Study of Process

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SHARED DECISION-MAKING IN SELECTED URBAN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS:
A STUDY OF PROCESS

by
Janet C. Elenbogen

A Dissertation Submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate School
of Loyola University of Chicago in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
January
1991

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Research does not just happen. It requires the cooperation and support of the participants. This paper is a reflection of the cooperation, support and guidance that I received from many sources.

My dissertation advisor, Dr. Melvin Heller, guided me through this effort and his questions stimulated me to look beyond the surface to the significance of the findings. My other committee members, Dr. Philip Carlin and Dr. Edward Rancic, focussed my efforts to bring theory and practice together.

The principals, staff, parents, and local school council members from the cooperating schools provided the substance for the paper. Their cooperation at a time of difficult transition can not be overstated. Their insights, comments, and descriptions have guided my conclusions.

The Hersey-Blanchard model instruments presented in this paper are printed with the express permission of the Center for Leadership Studies.

Finally, I would like to thank my friends and family. Their support, encouragement, and tolerance helped me to complete a very challenging task. I would especially like to thank my parents Dr. Morton Elenbogen and Elaine Elenbogen. Among the others who urged me to "be productive" were: Nancy Ginsburg, Mary McClure, Darlene McClendon, Nancy Hiestand, Elissa Bakall, Marcia Kurland, Linda Junker, Mavis Hagemann, Dr. Trudy Wallace, Judith Wood, Dr. Carleen Szafraniec-Lorys and Dr. Bruce Elenbogen.

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VITA

The author, Janet Carol Elenbogen, was born in Chicago, Illinois on November 23, 1952, the daughter of Dr. Morton Lawrence Elenbogen and Elaine (Manheim) Elenbogen.

Following graduation from Niles North High School in Skokie, Illinois in 1970, Janet Elenbogen entered Northwestern University in Evanston, Illinois completing requirements for a Bachelor of Science degree in Communicative Disorders in December, 1973. Requirements for the Masters of Arts degree in Communicative Disorders at Northwestern University were completed in December, 1974. In 1974, Ms. Elenbogen became a member of the American Speech and Hearing Association (A.S.H.A.) and received a state certificate in speech and language therapy and teaching elementary education. She received the certificate of clinical competence from A.S.H.A. in 1975.

In January, 1975, Ms. Elenbogen was employed as a Speech and Language Pathologist with the Speech Center programs for the Chicago Board of Education. During the period from January, 1975 to August, 1984, she received state of Illinois certificates and Chicago Board of Education certificates in the areas of: teaching students with learning disabilities, teaching students with severe emotional and behavior disorders, and supervision of teachers of students with learning disabilities, severe emotional and behavior disorders, and speech and language disorders. Education was received at, Northeastern Illinois University, the University of Illinois and National College of Education. Professional organizations memberships include: the Illinois Speech and Hearing Association, the Association for Staff Development and Curriculum Development, and the Council of Exceptional Children. She has served as the Illinois field tester for the

new Detroit Tests of Learning Aptitudes, presented on a WBEZ radio program on Speech Centers, supervised student teachers, and provided inservice to parents and District Council representatives.

In 1984, Ms. Elenbogen was employed with the Department of Research and Evaluation of the Chicago Public Schools and assigned to the evaluation of special education programs. In 1985, she became a coordinator in the special education evaluation unit. During this period of time, she also became a member of the advisory board for the Chicago Very Special Arts program, a chapter of the national VSA program.

In 1986, Ms. Elenbogen entered the doctoral program at Loyola University. She became a member of the American Educational Research Association and was nominated for membership in Phi Delta Kappa. In 1987, Ms. Elenbogen received a Chicago Board of Education Principal's certificate, and state certificates as Supervisor, Administrator, and Superintendent.

During this period, she became unit head of the Special Education and Gifted Education program evaluation unit. In this capacity, she coordinated, evaluated and conducted needs assessments for the 94-142 programs including the Life Experience program, the Drop-In program, the Speech Assistants program, the Institute for School Planning, Staff Development for the Department of Research and Evaluation, Gifted Education programs, whole class Great Books instruction programs, the programs funded by the Eisenhower Math and Science grant, and the pilot for the Jacob Javitz Gifted LEP program. She presented at two Institutes for School Planning on the planning process and the development of action plans. Ms. Elenbogen was also responsible for the supervision of evaluations for other special education and gifted projects conducted by the Department. During 1989, Ms. Elenbogen served on the State committee for the development of Guidelines in Gifted Education. In 1990, she served on the curriculum critique committee

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Administrative theory, as applied to education, provides a framework for understanding the role of educational administrators, how the educational organization operates, the various components of this social system, and how the administrator mediates between them. Educational administration theory can be viewed as the attempt to explain the complexities of the decision-making process involved in controlling, communicating, directing, coordinating, and reappraising life in the social organization known as school.

Griffiths (1959) feels that decision-making is central to administration and is the most important of the administrative functions. He highlights four precepts regarding administration:

1. Administration is a generalized type of behavior to be found in all human organizations.
2. Administration is the process of directing and controlling life in a social organization.
3. The specific function of administration is to develop and regulate the decision-making process in the most effective manner possible.
4. The administrator works with groups or with individuals with a group referent, not with individuals as such.¹

Wallace, Radvak-Shovlin, Piscolish, and LeMahieu (1990) state that "to reach maximum potential, all institutions must be able to solve problems effectively."² In an attempt to solve problems effectively, current research has emphasized the importance of

¹Daniel E. Griffiths, "A Taxonomy Based on Decision Making," in Daniel E. Griffiths (ed.) Developing Taxonomies of Organizational Behavior in Education Administration (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1969) pp. 63-65.

²Richard C. Wallace, Jr. Betty Radvak-Shovlin, Marina Piscolish, and Paul LeMahieu, "The Instructional Cabinet and Shared Decision-Making in the Pittsburgh Public Schools: Theory, Practice and Evaluation," (Paper presented to the annual meeting of American Educational Research Association, Boston, MA.) April, 1990, p.1.

the decision-making process. Studies examining who should participate in the decision-making, the content of the decision-making, the dynamics of the decision-making, and the outcomes of decision-making become an integral part in determining a model for "effective problem resolution."

Recent literature explores the issues of site-based management and teacher empowerment. Wallace et. al. (1990) note that the assumption is that schools will function more effectively when decisions are made locally (not a top-down model) and teachers are more involved in the decisions affecting life at the school.³

Current educational reform efforts emphasize the importance of involving many stakeholders in the decisional areas of the school. Educational reform in the Chicago Public Schools mandates the involvement of stakeholders in the decisions regarding school management. Every school as of October 1989 was required to have a local school council consisting of 11 members: six parents, two teachers, two community residents, and the principal. The council works with the principal, parents, staff and community to develop three-year school improvement plans. They have the right to approve or disapprove school budgets. Further, the councils select the principal and determine whether or not to grant or renew the principal's four-year performance contract. The expectation from reform advocates is that this model will result in an "improved" educational system. Success would be determined in part by performance on the System's objectives. Included are objectives for improving student achievement, student attendance, and staff attendance. The magnitude of the restructuring of the system, makes Chicago unique in the nation.

Examination of the school planning process in the Chicago Public Schools during the 1980's reveals the evolution from a top-down decisional model to a shared decision-making model. In the early 1980's, principals attended administrative academies which served as forums for the examination of systemwide objectives, their translation into local

³Ibid

school objectives, and the formulation of plans for accomplishment of the system's objectives. This model of action planning subsequently changed from an administrator focus to a planning model based on input from administrators and lead teachers during the administrative academies of 1981-1985. The Institute for School Planning models of 1986-87 involved administration, lead teachers, other teaching staff, career service personnel and parents in the planning of local school objectives. The current reform movement requires the participation of representation from local school councils in the major decisional areas.

The thrust of current reform advocates appears to espouse the concept that "more" participation in decision-making is "better." Many questions arise from this premise. Is more participation better? Should the leader delegate decisions in all situations to all constituents? Is there an optimal model for decision-making? Is delegation of decisions bound by situational constraints? Will greater participation by major stakeholders result in improved educational outcomes? In exploring these questions, an examination of theory serves as a guide.

Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1957) in their theory of the Zone of Indifference, posit that when the context of the decision-making is of little or no concern to the teacher (when it is in the zone of indifference) a more task oriented leadership approach is warranted. In contrast, as the focus of the decision-making approximates those areas that most directly impact upon the teacher, the zone of indifference is likely to decrease (figure 1).

Sergiovanni (1988) provides an example of how competency, maturity and commitment levels of teachers relate to this construct. "The more competent teachers are, given a particular set of problems or tasks, the more appropriate are related and integrated styles. The less competent teachers are, given a set of problems and tasks, the more appropriate is the dedicated style."⁴

⁴Thomas J. Sergiovanni and Robert J. Starratt, Supervision Human Perspectives. (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1988) pp.186-7.

Vroom (1975) emphasizes the degree of teacher participation in decision-making in his Contingency Theory of Leadership. Five decision-making styles are identified. The effectiveness of the style is dependent upon the situation. The leader would determine the best decision style based on the answers to eight questions:

1. Is there a quality requirement such that one solution is likely to be more rational than another?
2. Do I have sufficient information to make a high quality decision?
3. Is the problem structured?
4. Is acceptance of the decision by subordinates critical to effective implementation?
5. If I were to make the decision by myself, is it reasonably certain that it would be accepted by my subordinates?
6. Do subordinates share the organizational goals to be attained in solving this problem?
7. Is conflict among subordinates likely in preferred solutions ?
8. Do subordinates have sufficient information to make a high quality decision?⁵

In a contingency approach, where responses are tied to different roads on the decision tree, the following leader behaviors are recommended. The five decision styles include:

1. The leader resolves a problem or makes the decision utilizing the information available.
2. The leader obtains essential information from the followers and decides on the solution to the problem utilizing the information. The leader does not necessarily inform the followers about the problem while obtaining the information.
3. The leader shares the problems with relevant followers individually, obtaining their ideas and suggestions without bringing the members together as a group. The leader may or may not be influenced by follower input.
4. The leader shares the problem with the followers as a group. The leader listens to the ideas and suggestions and makes a decision which may or may not reflect the follower input.
5. The leader shares the problem with the followers as a group. Together they generate and evaluate alternatives and strive for agreement on problem resolution. The leader is willing to accept and implement any solution that has group support.⁶

Each path on the decision tree results in a different configuration of alternative decision

⁵Victor Vroom and Arthur Jago, "Decision Making as a Social Process: Normative and Descriptive Models of Leadership Behavior," Technical Report No. 5, Organizational Effectiveness Research Programs, Office of Naval Research, N0014-67-A-0097-0027, A, 1974.

⁶Ibid

styles. In some cases more than one style is feasible, so the leader must select the optimal style for his/her situation. A total of eighteen different decision model configurations is possible. Each decision style is in ascending order of the time required for implementation and in descending order in terms of potential development of the follower (figure 2).

Contingency and situational models of leadership also address the importance of intervening variables in the determination of "appropriate approaches" to decision-making. These theories focus on factors that should guide the match between a leadership style and the delegation of decisions.

During the early 1970's, Fiedler et. al. developed the Contingency Theory of Leadership. This theory predicts that both task-oriented and relations-oriented leaders can be effective in situations that are appropriate to and support their leadership style. Fiedler noted that the style of a leader is very difficult to change, hence the tasks and situations should accommodate leadership styles as opposed to the leader changing styles to fit the situation. The contingency model proposes that task-oriented leaders perform best in situations that provide them with either strong or weak influence, while the relations-oriented leader performs best in the intermediate situation (figure 3).

An extension of Contingency Theory, is the Hersey and Blanchard Situational Leadership Theory, which adds another dimension to the examination of effective leadership. These authors focus on matching the leadership style to the maturity level of the followers. Maturity is conceptualized as: "the capacity to set high but attainable goals, willingness and ability to take responsibility, and education and/or experience of an individual."⁷ These authors emphasize that the maturity variable should be task specific.

Hence, the leader must recognize that followers have different levels of maturity for different tasks.

⁷H. Steven Floyd, Development of an Instrument to Measure the Effectiveness of the Administrative Team, (Doctoral dissertation: The University of Arkansas, 1981) p. 13.

...as the level of maturity of their followers continues to increase in terms of accomplishing a specific task, leaders should begin to reduce their task behavior and increase relationship behavior until the individual or group reaches a moderate level of maturity. As the individual or group begins to move into an above average level of maturity, it becomes appropriate for leaders to decrease not only task behavior, but also relationship behavior.⁸

Depending on the maturity level of the followers, the leader adopts a telling, selling, participating, or delegating leadership style. Hence, high task/low relationship leader behavior (telling) is effective with followers of low or low-moderate readiness levels; high task/high relationship behavior (selling) is effective with followers of moderate readiness levels; high relationship/low task behavior (participating) is effective with high-moderate readiness level followers; low relationship/low task behavior (delegating) is effective with followers of high readiness levels (figure 4). Roach (1981) notes that little research has been performed with regard to the application of the Hersey-Blanchard model to issues of educational administration.

RATIONALE AND NEED FOR THIS STUDY

Review of these theories suggests that the problem of delegation of decisions and implementation of decision models is more complex than "more participation is better." Perhaps factors such as the problem to be resolved, the situation, and the maturity level of the followers, the interest of the participants in making decisions, and the leadership style of the administrator also play a determining role in the success of a particular decision-making construct.

Once the adoption of a particular decision model is determined, one turns to the

⁸Ibid

question of whether or not shared decision-making is effective in influencing critical school outcomes.

Researchers have noted many advantages to the utilization of "shared or participative decision-making" in the resolution of problems. Advantages include: improved staff morale, increased likelihood that the follower will accept the decision, improved cooperation between administration and subordinates, and improved adaptability to changes that might result from the decisions: Sparkes (1981), Hoy and Miskel (1982), Seashore and Abt Associates (1981), and Snyder (1983).

Bass (1981) notes that research regarding the effectiveness of participative decision-making on follower performance in the business world has resulted in mixed findings. Studies regarding the quality of decisions favors a participatory approach, but overall measurements of production in business do not reveal consistent trends.

Further, Imber et.al. (1980) state: "research that directly addresses the relationship between the degree of teacher decision-making and student outcome is almost non-existent."⁹

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

It appears that many questions remain unanswered in this key area of administration and educational reform, decision-making. The purpose of this study is to examine a central feature of the Chicago Public School Reform, shared decision-making as applied to the local school planning process. Examination will lead to a better understanding of the process of shared decision-making and recommendations for its utilization. The Hersey-Blanchard Situational Leadership Theory will also be examined in terms of its application to

⁹M. Imber, D.L. Duke, and B.K. Showers, Increased Decision-making Involvement for Teachers: Ethical and Practical Consideration. (Report No. EA 013 255) Paper presented to annual meeting of American Educational Research Association, Boston, MA. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 199 826) p. 3.

local school decision-making. Hence, this study will address two areas: What are the characteristics of shared decision-making as applied to the local school planning process?; What is the application of the Hersey-Blanchard Situational Leadership Theory to decision-making, as practiced by selected urban elementary schools in the local school planning process?

METHOD SYNOPSIS

Best and Kahn in their text Research in Education (1989) define descriptive research:

A descriptive study describes and interprets what is. It is concerned with the conditions or relationships that exist, opinions that are held, processes that are going on, effects that are evident, or trends that are developing. It is primarily concerned with the present, although it often considers the past events and influences as they relate to current conditions.¹⁰

This study is descriptive in nature. Earlier studies conducted by the Chicago Board of Education on the institutes for school planning ("The 1986 Institute for School Planning Evaluation Report", "The 1987 Institute for School Planning Evaluation Report," and "Follow-up to the 1987 Institute for School Planning Report") described the planning process and suggested that larger schools engaged in less shared decision-making, and that the percent of low-income students in attendance was a predictor of school achievement test scores on the Iowa Tests of Basic Skills. It was hypothesized that smaller schools, with higher socioeconomic status levels, higher achievement levels, and principals with at least three years of administrative experience, might have fewer problems in implementing the shared decision-making model as applied to school planning. Hence, schools were matched by staff size, percent of low-income students in attendance, school size, and mean

¹⁰John W. Best and James V. Kahn, Research in Education, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 1989) p.76.

performance on standardized achievement tests (The Iowa Tests of Basic Skills), reading comprehension and total mathematics scores. Descriptive data from the Chicago Public Schools 1988-89 Test Scores and Selected School Characteristics book was entered on a data base using the Statworks software program. This data was sorted and schools that were one standard deviation below the mean in size, and percent of low-income students in attendance were included. Schools with mean ITBS reading comprehension and mathematics total scores within the fifth stanine range or above were also included. Schools that served as regional sites for specialized populations (special education, gifted) were excluded. Principals included in the study had a minimum of three years of administrative experience. By matching these factors, 15 similar schools were selected. In this way, the study explored the different decision styles that emerged from this select urban elementary school population.

Schools were matched by the percentage of low-income students in attendance, since previous analyses have revealed that this is an important variable in predicting student performance in the targeted outcome areas of student achievement in reading, mathematics, and student attendance. Principals were selected on the basis of having a minimum of three years of experience within the system. This was designed to minimize problems arising from the development of a leadership style, etc.

In exploring the two central questions, this study used the instruments indicated below. Questions that served as the focus for the study are aligned with each instrument in the following descriptions.

The School Planning Questionnaire

1. What are the characteristics of shared decision-making in selected Chicago public

elementary schools? Utilizing school planning questionnaires and interviews, the participants in the planning process, their background experience in the planning areas, the frequency of the planning meetings, the degree of involvement and influence in the planning process, and the perceived outcomes of planning were examined. This study included examination of differences in perceptions by position (parent, teacher, principal, and career service member), educational background, training level, and interest of the participants in the decisional area. Analysis of these data revealed differentiated approaches to planning. The utilization of combined interview and questionnaire approaches served to ensure the reliability and validity of the responses.

The Problem Solving and Decision-making Questionnaire

(Hersey and Natemeyer)

The Readiness Match Questionnaire

(Hersey, Blanchard and Kielty)

2. The second phase of the study explored the leadership style-participant match and the identification of the leader's problem-solving and decision-making style. This portion of the study incorporated the use of LEAD instruments from the Center for Leadership Studies (Hersey and Blanchard). These data indicated whether or not theory would support the adoption of the decision-models employed in the situations identified and how applicable this theory was to the educational planning process.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study attempted to answer the following questions:

PART ONE: THE SHARED DECISION-MAKING PROCESS IN SCHOOL PLANNING

DESCRIPTION OF THE SHARED DECISION-MAKING PROCESS

1. What is the nature of shared decision-making in these selected urban elementary schools?

a) Who participates in the decision-making process at these sites?

Characteristics explored included position, age, sex, educational experience, experience in areas specific to the decisional area, and experience in the process of shared decision-making and planning.

b) What role do these individuals play in the decisional process?

What role do these individuals wish to play?

c) Which criteria seem to most strongly influence the degree of participation?

How do perceptions differ on the criteria that should be used to determine participation? Is there a relationship between differing perceptions and position?

d) To what degree does shared decision-making take place? Who participates?

How often do they participate? Who controls the agenda, how much involvement is perceived? How much influence do persons perceive they have in the decisions? In how many stages of decision-making are persons involved?

WHAT ARE THE DYNAMICS OF THE PROCESS OF SHARED DECISION-MAKING?

- 2) How do participants react when the decision reached is contrary to their view? How does this vary by position? What influences participants the most in reaching a decision?

WHAT ARE THE PERCEIVED OUTCOMES OF SHARED DECISION-MAKING?

- 3) What are the perceived effects of shared decision-making in the areas of: improvement of the school, improvement of the school's objectives, benefits to the participants, time constraints, communication, staff motivation, staff morale, and unexpected outcomes? Do the factors of position, training rating, degree of shared decision-making at the site, degree of perceived involvement, degree of perceived influence, or degree of implementation of the plan predict the effectiveness ratings in these planning areas?

PART 2: APPLICATION OF THE HERSEY-BLANCHARD SITUATIONAL LEADERSHIP THEORY TO LOCAL SCHOOL PLANNING

APPLICATION OF THE PROBLEM-SOLVING AND DECISION-MAKING STYLE INVENTORY

1. The responses of the principal and the participants in planning were compared on two instruments: Problem-solving and Decision-making Style Inventory (Perception of Self) and Problem-solving and Decision-making Style Inventory (Perception of Other). Questions emanating from this portion of the study included: What is the principal's primary leadership style with the planning team? What is the principal's secondary leadership style with the planning team? What is the relative emphasis in decisions (leader-made, collaborative, or follower-made decisions)? Does the perception of emphasis vary by position? The School Planning Questionnaire was utilized to determine a training rating for the participants. The question of application of the theory was analyzed in terms of the ability of the group training rating to predict the leadership style utilized by the principal.

APPLICATION OF THE READINESS STYLE-MATCH INVENTORY

2. The emphasis of the Hersey-Blanchard Leadership model is on the leader utilizing styles that match the staff member's readiness level (determined by maturity and motivation ratings). In this portion of the study, the principal indicated participants who were key figures in the planning process. The principal rated these participants on their maturity and motivation to work on objectives pertinent to the school planning process. Readiness levels were matched against the leadership styles utilized. Planning participants also rated these aspects. Questions from this portion of the study are as follows: Does the principal appear to be matching the readiness of the participants to his or her leadership style? Is there consensus between the participants and the principals in planning? Is decision-making perceived to be

more effective in the schools where there is a readiness-style match (where the theory is appropriately applied)?

SUMMARY

This chapter serves as an introduction to the examination of shared decision-making in elementary schools. The following areas were addressed in this portion of the paper: the role that decision-making plays in administration and administrative theory, the evolution of the shared decision-making model, description of contingency and situational leadership theories, the rationale and need for the study, the statement of the problem, a synopsis of the method and the research questions.

Chapter II presents a review of the related literature, defines terminology and provides a theoretical foundation for this study. Chapter III presents a more detailed look at the methodology utilized in this research study. Chapter IV focuses on the results of the research and is entitled presentation and analysis. Chapter V discusses the findings and their implications. Chapter VI summarizes the conclusions of the study and provides recommendations based on the findings.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

DEFINITION OF DECISION-MAKING

Many authors have analyzed decision-making and have attempted to provide definition to this process. The following are some thoughts on this subject. Barnard (1938) stated that "the process of decision...is largely techniques for narrowing choice."¹¹

Simon (1960) divides the process into three steps: intelligence activity, design activity, and choice activity. Essentially this involves determining the need for a design, developing possible choices to resolve the problem, and selecting the activity from the choices available.

Owens (1972) defines decision-making as the problem-solving process where one or more participants recognize a problem field, identify the problem, specify the problem, diagnose the problem, set objectives, generate alternatives, evaluate alternatives, make a decision, and set standards and controls for evaluation.¹²

Stufflebeam et. al. discuss decision-making as a four stage process:

1) awareness that there is a need for a decision, 2) designing a situation, 3) selecting the alternative, and 4) taking action in terms of the identified alternative. Decisions related to education may be categorized as those related to intended goals, proposed procedures, attainment (goal accomplishment), and procedures in use.¹³

¹¹Chester I. Barnard, The Functions of the Executive. Cambridge: Harvard Press (1938), p. 314.

¹²James Owens, "Problem Analysis: Guidance System for Decision Making," The Credit Union Executive, (Winter, 1972).

¹³Daniel L. Stufflebeam, et. al., Educational Evaluation and Decision Making, Itasca Illinois: Peacock, 1971.)

Hence, the administrator must become aware of the need for a decision, determine the available information, and project the degree of change that will result. When this information is determined, the administrator selects a decision model and determines the category of decision. Finally, the process requires implementation and evaluation. Decision-making is problem solving, identification of the discrepancies between what is and what should be and determination of ways to mediate between the two.

DEFINITION OF SHARED OR PARTICIPATIVE DECISION-MAKING

Vargas (1986) cites Sashkin (1982) in stating "Participative management is a system in an organization which is based on the group process of decision-making, goal-setting, problem-solving, and development and implementing of change."¹⁴

Lowin (1968) defines participative decision-making as "...a mode of organizational operations in which decisions as to activities are arrived at by the very persons who are to execute those decisions."¹⁵

Argyris (1955) conceptualizes participative decision-making as "opportunity to participate in the various decisions that are made in their organizations which affect them directly."¹⁶

Vargas (1986) cites Shonk (1982) in reporting that it is the "common goal or task and the coordination of the common effort, which distinguishes participative management from other types of management."¹⁷

Hence, participative or shared decision-making requires the involvement of those

¹⁴Linda Vargas, Participative Management Among Selected Los Angeles County Elementary School Principals, (Doctoral dissertation, Brigham Young University, Provo, 1986) p. 1.

¹⁵Aaron Lowin, "Participative Decision Making: A Model, Literature Critique, and Prescriptions for Research", Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 3 (Feb., 1968), p.68.

¹⁶C. Argyris, "Organizational Leadership and Participation Management." The Journal of Business, 28, (1955) p.1.

¹⁷Linda Vargas, Participative Management Among Selected Los Angeles County Elementary School Principals, (Doctoral dissertation, Brigham Young University, Provo, 1986) p. 1.

who will execute the decisions and who will be affected by the decisions. It involves the participants in the problem-solving from the stages of goal setting to the implementation of the decisions.

Singer (1974) has noted four areas of consideration when classifying types of participative decision-making: 1) Participation must be viewed in terms of group and individual aspects. While most view participative decision-making as a team process, some feel that it involves individual freedom of expression. 2) Shared decision-making must consider both the objective and psychological participation. 3) Pseudo-participation and genuine participation form the third area of consideration. Pseudo-participation has the goal of making participants feel that they are useful and reducing resistance to authority. Genuine participation, on the other hand, focuses on the effectiveness of the process. 4) The last issue focuses on the varieties and degrees of sharing in the decision-making process.

VIEWS OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION AS THEY RELATE TO DECISION-MAKING (A HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE)

Kimbrough and Nunnery (1981) in their text Educational Administration, have noted that many theorists view administration and decision-making as closely related areas. The relationship of decision-making to administration was further highlighted in the introduction to this paper.

Simon (1950) states:

If any theory is involved, it is that decision-making is the heart of administration, and that the vocabulary of administration theory must be derived from the logic and psychology of human choice...The task of deciding pervades the entire administrative organization quite as much as the task of doing--indeed, it is integrally tied up with the latter. A general theory of administration must include principles of organization that

will insure correct decision-making, just as it must include principles that will insure effective action.¹⁸

Many authors view decision-making as an integral part of the role of administrator. A look at the development of administrative theory and the changing views of the role of the administrator provides a perspective on the changing opinions regarding who should participate in decision-making.

The period of Scientific Management spanned the time from 1900-1935. It emphasized efficiency and separating planning from doing. Beginning with the work of Frederick W. Taylor, it was further developed by Henri Fayol. Fayol felt that administration was the application of: planning, organizing, commanding, coordinating, and controlling. These components were elaborated upon by Gulick and Urwick in 1937 into: planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting, and budgeting (POSDCORB). Also writing in this period, was Max Weber who viewed the administrator as a Bureaucrat. A "Bureaucrat" represented the fair commander. The term was not looked upon with disdain. Thus, during the period of Scientific Management, the application of POSDCORB represented implementation of administration. Administrators were to get the job done as efficiently as possible. The center of decision-making was the administrator.

The period of Human Relations covered the time frame from 1935-1950. It was a reaction to the structure of Scientific Management. Instead of viewing administration as a top-down model, administration was a horizontal model of leadership. Espoused by Mary Parker Follett, interest was focused on coordinating the various aspects of administration with the process of the job task. Expansion of this model resulted from the work of Mayo and Roethlisberger and the Hawthorne experiment. The importance of the informal organization was recognized. Application of administrative theory during this time period would focus on the informal structure and placing the administrator on an equal level with

¹⁸Herbert A. Simon, Administrative Behavior (New York: Macmillan, 1950) pp. xiv-1.

the employees.

The time frame from 1950-the present was the period of Behavioral Sciences. The thrust was on combining the formal with the informal aspects of the organization. Combining the principles from Scientific Management and Human Relations, the psychology of the organization was explored. Some theorists of this period included Griffiths, Litchfield, Barnard and Simon. Techniques for the application of administrative theory emerged during this phase: (program evaluation review technique (PERT), program planning budgeting system (PPBS), organization development (OD), management by objectives with results (MBO/R), etc. Characteristic of this period was the tri-dimensional view: the man, the job, and the setting.

The current period in the evolution of administrative theory, 1960-the present, is characterized by systems theory. Exemplifying this view is the work of Getzels and Guba and their nomothetic-idiographic view of administration. The nomothetic dimension consisting of the institution, the role, and role expectations interacts with the idiographic dimension defined by the individual, personality, and the individual's needs disposition. Hence, the theory captures the interaction of role with the individual.

During the Behavioral Science and Systems Theory periods, the dimensions of leadership have been a focus for investigation as well as its refinement into Contingency Theory. Leadership theory proposes two primary dimensions of leadership style, task orientation (TO) and relations orientation (RO).

Blake and Mouton (1964) proposed the managerial grid model. The horizontal axis of their grid is identified as concern for production, while the vertical axis represents concern for people. The scale for each of these factors ranges from 1 to 9. A total of 81 different management styles are possible. Hence, a 1.9 management style is characterized by a high concern for people and a low concern for production. The managerial grid system is considered to be a normative theory since it advocates the 9.9 style, high concern

for production and high concern for people, as the one best leadership style (figure 5).

Reddin (1970) advocated a more descriptive theory of leadership, the 3-D Leadership Theory. This model advocates that one best style does not exist. The effectiveness of the style is dependent upon the situation. Four leadership styles are defined by the task orientation (TO) and relations orientation (RO) dimensions. The high RO-low TO leader is viewed as related, the low RO-low TO individual as separated, the low TO-low RO individual as dedicated, and the high TO-high RO leader as integrated. When used appropriately, the integrated leader is viewed as an executive, the separated leader is viewed as a bureaucrat, the dedicated individual becomes the benevolent autocrat and the related person is viewed as a developer. When used inappropriately, the integrated leader becomes a compromiser, the separated person is a deserter, the dedicated leader is an autocrat, and the related leader is viewed as a missionary (figure 6).

Should a leader delegate all decisions to his/her employees? Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1957) consider these very issues in their Theory of the Zone of Indifference. These authors postulate that when the context of the decision-making is of little or no concern to the teacher (when it is in the zone of indifference), a more task oriented approach from the leader is appropriate. As the focus of decision-making approximates those areas that most directly impact on the teacher, the zone of indifference is likely to decrease (see figure 1).

A related concept is the path-goal theory espoused by House (1971). This theory indicates that the effectiveness of a leader's behavior will be dictated by the work environment and the characteristics of the subordinate. According to House, subordinates will choose behaviors that they see as leading them to the attainment of goals with valued outcomes. The leader's behavior motivates the subordinate, if it increases his/her goal attainment and clarifies the paths to these goals. The leader varies his/her behavior across situations. Among the assumptions of the theory are: 1) the clarification of a role is a

requirement for task accomplishment (Schriesheim and Schriesheim, 1980). 2) Very structured tasks are less satisfying than unstructured tasks (Schriesheim and Schriesheim, 1980). 3) The higher the job level, the less role clarity exists (Dessler and Valenzi, 1977). In this theory, four types of leader behavior are identified: directive, supportive, participative, and achievement-oriented. These behaviors become predictors of the subordinates affective behavior. The dependent variables in the theory are the subordinate states of: intrinsic job satisfaction, the expectancy that effort leads to effective performance, the expectancy that performance leads to rewards, role clarity, satisfaction with extrinsic rewards, and satisfaction with the leader. Intervening variables include the environmental factors and the subordinate's characteristics.

Indvik, 1985, explored the Path-Goal theory in her dissertation, "A Path-Goal Theory Investigation of Superior-Subordinate Relationships." This study consisted of a review of the literature, a meta-analysis of path-goal research, and a test of 21 path-goal hypotheses developed as a result of her research. Forty-four articles focusing on 48 studies with a total of 11,862 respondents were utilized in the meta-analysis. Findings indicated that directive leader behavior served as a predictor of subordinate affective behavior, but did not serve to clarify roles and performance. Supportive leader behavior predicted role clarity, and the subordinate affective behavior and performance. Participative and achievement-oriented behavior were not tested due to insufficient information. The primary study included a sample of 467 nonacademic staff members at a western university. Utilizing the measures of leader behavior, moderator and subordinate outcome measures specified by the theory, the study focussed on the moderators that affected leader behavior and subordinate outcomes. Situational factors had differing effects on the Path-Goal relationships. Findings follow:

Directive leader behavior was most strongly moderated by task structure and by need for achievement. Supportive and participative leader behaviors were most strongly moderated by work group importance, organizational formalization and self-perceived ability. Supportive

leader behavior was moderated by preference for external structure, while participative leader behavior was moderated by need for achievement. Achievement-oriented leader behavior was not strongly moderated by environmental structure contingencies but was moderated by the subordinate characteristics of need for achievement and self-perceived ability.¹⁹

Vroom (1975) emphasizes the degree of teacher participation in decision-making in his contingency theory of leadership. Five decision-making styles are identified. The effectiveness of the style is dependent on the situation. The leader would determine the best decision style based on the answers to eight questions and contingent upon the responses to the questions indicated, the leader would follow different roads on the decision tree. Each path on the decision tree results in a different configuration of alternative decision styles. In some cases more than one style is feasible, so the leader must select the optimal style for his/her situation. A total of eighteen different option configurations is possible. Each decision style is in ascending order of the time required for implementation and in descending order in terms of potential development of the follower. Hence, decision style 1 (the leader resolves a problem or makes the decision using available information) is most efficient in terms of time constraints, but offers the least in the area of potential development for teachers (see figure 2).

During the early 1970s, Fiedler et.al. developed the Contingency Theory of Leadership. This theory predicts that both task-oriented and relations oriented leaders can be effective in situations that are appropriate to and support their leadership style. Fiedler feels that the style of a leader is a given, and hence, the tasks and situations should accommodate leadership styles as opposed to the leader changing styles to fit the situation. Three dimensions are considered in this model: leader-member personal relationships, task structure, and leader position power. Leader-member relations are classified as good, moderate or poor, task structure as structured or unstructured, and leader position power as

¹⁹Julie Indvik, A Path-Goal Theory Investigation of Superior-Subordinate Relationships, (Doctoral dissertation, University of Wisconsin-Madison, 1985) pp. 162-163.

strong or weak. The contingency model indicates that task-oriented leaders perform best in situations that provide them with either strong or weak influence, while the relationship-oriented leader performs best in the intermediate situation (see figure 3).

THE DEVELOPMENT OF SITUATIONAL LEADERSHIP THEORY

The Hersey and Blanchard Situational Leadership model adds another dimension to the examination of effective leadership. It was a further development of the work of Reddin's 3-D Management Style theory and Halpin's Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LDBQ). First developed as the Tri-Dimensional Leader Effectiveness Model at Ohio University, it views leadership style as the intersection of the task behavior and relationship behavior. Task and relationship behavior are defined as follows:

Task Behavior: The extent to which leaders are likely to organize and define the roles of the members of their group (followers); to explain what activities each is to do and when, where, and how, endeavoring to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and ways of getting jobs accomplished.

Relationship behavior: The extent to which leaders are likely to maintain personal relationships between themselves and members of their group (followers) by opening up channels of communication, providing socioemotional support, "psychological strokes," and facilitating behaviors.²⁰

The task and relationship behaviors can be combined to yield quadrants representing four leadership styles: high task and high relationship, high task and low relationship, low task and low relationship, and high relationship and low task (figure 7). These authors focus on matching the leadership style to the maturity or readiness level of the followers.

²⁰Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard, Management of Organizational Behavior, 2nd edition Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall, 1972) p. 104.

Hersey and Blanchard (1972) state:

...to determine what leadership style is appropriate in a given situation, a leader must first determine the maturity level of the individual or group in relation to a specific task that the leader is attempting to accomplish through their efforts.²¹

The maturity level of the followers proceeds along a continuum ranging from very immature to very mature. This is evaluated on a four-point scale. M1= low maturity, M2 and M3 are considered moderate maturity, and M4 is evaluated as high maturity (figure 8). Once maturity level is determined, the leader intersects a 90 degree angle from the point on the maturity scale and extends the line until it intersects with the bell-curve. The appropriate leadership style is where the intersection of the lines occurs. Four leadership styles emerge: telling, selling, participating, and delegating (figure 9). They are defined as follows:

High task/low relationship leader behavior (S1) is referred to as "telling" because this style is characterized by one-way communication in which the leader defines the roles of the followers and tells them what, how, when and where to do various tasks.

High task/high relationship behavior (S2) is referred to as "selling" because with this style most of the direction is still provided by the leader. He or she also attempts through two-way communication and socioemotional support to get the follower (s) psychologically to buy into decisions that have to be made.

High relationship/low task behavior (S3) is called "participating" because with this style the leader and follower (s) now share in decision-making through two-way communication and much facilitating behavior from the leader since the follower (s) have activity and knowledge to do the task.

Low relationship/low task behavior (S4) is labeled "delegating" because the style involves letting follower(s) "run their own show" through delegation and general supervision, since the follower (s) are high in both task and psychological maturity.²²

²¹Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard, Management of Organizational Behavior, 2nd edition Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall, 1972) p. 165.

²²Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard, Management of Organizational Behavior, 2nd edition Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall, 1972) pp. 169-170.

A more participatory approach to leadership is espoused as the maturity level of the followers increases.

In the 1989 revision of the theory, motivational level of the subordinate also serves to determine readiness. Readiness is measured on a four-point Likert-type scale with allowances for half-point increments. Followers are rated according to their ability: possessing the necessary knowledge and skill to do a task (Job Readiness) and their willingness to do a task: having the necessary confidence and motivation (Psychological Readiness). Participatory leadership is characterized by a high relations orientation. Leadership is still characterized as telling, selling, participating, and delegating. The very immature inexperienced follower (R1: R=readiness level) would require a very directive structured (high TO-low RO) approach or "telling." The very mature experienced (R4: R= readiness level) employee, on the other hand, could be delegated the task. The leader would provide support and use indirect leadership (a low TO-high RO configuration.)

Another variation of the model is associated with the problem-solving and decision-making readiness instruments. This theory further borrows from the Reddin model in noting more effective and less effective views of the leadership-match (figures 10 and 11). Instead of task orientation and relations orientation, Hersey and Natemeyer (1988) use the terms directive behavior and supportive behavior. These terms are defined as follows:

Directive behavior: is the extent to which an individual solves the problems, makes the decisions, spells out the duties of others, and engages in telling others what to do, how to do it, when to do it, where to do it, and who is to do it. Some substitute terms for directive behavior include task behavior, assertive behavior, and guidance.

Supportive behavior: is the extent to which an individual engages in two-way communication with others regarding the problem or decision and provides socioemotional support and facilitative behavior. Some substitute terms for supportive behavior include relationship behavior, discussion, and encouragement.²³

²³Paul Hersey and Walter E. Natemeyer, "Problem-Solving and Decision-making Style Inventory," San Diego: Leadership studies Inc., 1982, p. 3.

The curvilinear relationship moves from authoritative, to consultative to facilitative and delegative leadership styles in appropriate matches. In the inappropriate match, telling becomes coercing, selling is viewed as manipulating, participating as patronizing, and delegating as avoiding. Readiness to solve problems and make decisions determines the appropriateness of the match. These are defined as ability and willingness.

Ability: the extent to which one possesses the necessary knowledge or skill to make the decision or to solve the problem, and

Willingness: the extent to which one possesses the necessary confidence, commitment, and motivation to make the decision or to solve the problem.²⁴

It is seen, that the conceptualization of the decision-making team is closely tied to the idea of Situational Leadership theory. This theory would predict that participative decision-making as a management tool would be most effective when utilized with M3 (R3) and M4 (R4) level teams and least effective when used with M1 (R1) and M2 (R2) teams.

The evolution of leadership theory and decision-making are closely related. As the leader moves to more participative styles, the composition of the team should be considered. Erdeljac (1984) in commenting on Likert and Likert (1977) states that "Leader behavior should promote cooperation rather than competition, team building, personal worth and importance and support."²⁵

In the preceding examples, we see attempts to explain the complexities of the decision-making process and areas that the leader should consider in administration. In the section to follow, the focus will be on examination of recent findings regarding this aspect of school administration.

²⁴Paul Hersey and Walter E. Natemeyer, "Problem-Solving and Decision-making Style Inventory," San Diego: Leadership Studies Inc., 1982, p. 4.

¹¹Charles P. Erdeljac, Participative Decision Making in Pennsylvania Public Schools: Perceptions of Superintendents and Teacher Union Presidents, (Doctoral dissertation, University of Pittsburgh, 1984) p. 39.

RESEARCH REGARDING SHARED DECISION-MAKING AREAS AND UTILIZATION OF SHARED DECISION-MAKING

Areas of decision-making have also been a topic for research. Ho (1982) used the Rasch Program for Rating Scale Analysis to determine school level decisions. Three decision-making zones in public elementary schools were identified: the managerial zone, the technical zone and the professional zone. These can further be translated into the principal zone, the teacher zone and the conflict zone.

Hanson and Brown (1977) identified managerial and instructional zones. In this model, administrators made decisions in the areas of budgeting, student restriction, classified employment, etc. Teachers made decisions regarding teacher-learning environment, student evaluation, textbook selection, instructional activities, curriculum content, etc. The Hanson and Brown theory posits that when conflicts arise between the zones that teachers and administrators must integrate and share decisions to resolve the problem. The act of negotiating is a means of bridging the gap between the two zones. In the conflict zone, the climate must meet "bureaucratic needs for rational, predictable, controlled and efficient environment along with professional needs for an autonomous, spontaneous, creative, and flexible environment."²⁶

In projecting the "future of shared decision-making," Koehler (1974) utilized a Delphi assessment. The results of the assessment consisting of responses from 30 superintendents from large high school districts throughout Illinois and an extensive literature review, determined seven recommendations to districts interested in implementing the concept of shared decision-making. In summary, these included: assessment of the school system's goal structure and the development of realizable goals, modification of administrative values so they align with the values inherent in shared-decision making,

²⁶E.M. Hanson and M.E. Brown, "A Contingency View of Problem Solving in Schools: A Case Analysis. Educational Administration Quarterly, 13, p.67.

modification of the organizational structure to facilitate shared decision-making, reduction of subsystem autonomy, integration of problem-solving processes into the shared decision-making repertoire, remembering the "principle of origin" the teacher's first responsibility is to the students, avoiding the delimitation of administrative authority in the decision-making process, and acknowledging the many dimensions inherent in change.

Peigh (1982) examined differences in the perception of decision-making by high participatory decision-making principals and low participatory decision-making principals. This study focussed on the areas of decision-making and perceptions regarding the process of shared decision-making. Statements examined such issues as whether group composition determined differences in decision-making, the utilization of modern technological advances in decision-making, whether clarification of administrative duties minimized decisional conflict, the importance of communication skills in decision-making, the realization of decisional limitations, and the influence of environmental factors on decision-making. Twenty-seven such statements were utilized in the analysis. He noted that while the amount of research concerning decision-making is extensive, limited work has been attempted that is related to the educational decision-making process. Peigh found slight differences in the rankings of high participatory principals and low participatory principals in terms of the personnel involved in building level decisions. Differences were in the areas of determining teacher assignments and class loads, implementing curriculum and scheduling revisions, evaluating school programs in terms of system and course objectives and in setting long-range goals of the school system. The high participatory principals ranked the higher level administrator as being most involved in these decisions. There were no significant differences between the high participatory and low participatory decision-making principals on their perceptions regarding the process of participatory decision-making.

Bass (1981) reports that studies from business indicate that younger less

experienced managers with less education are more directive than older more educated managers. The older manager tends to utilize a more participative decision-making approach. Bass also reports that participative leadership promotes acceptance of decisions and agreements to a greater degree than more directed approaches to leadership. Further, followers tend to experience greater satisfaction and levels of job involvement when this approach is employed. Bass also notes that subordinate participation is particularly effective in dynamic situations.

TEACHER AND ADMINISTRATOR PERCEPTIONS OF SHARED DECISION-MAKING

Smylie (1988) points to "various dimensions of the interactive contexts of schools"²⁷ as creating a receptive environment in which teachers are willing to change. Among these dimensions are the principal's emphasis on goals and supervision, teachers' interpersonal relationships and tolerance of open expression.

Stuckwisch (1986) studied the relationship between participatory decision-making and teacher perceptions of influence. Teachers overall reported low levels of participation in the decisions at their respective schools. Teacher participation in decision-making occurred most frequently in the instructional authority domain and least in the managerial area. His research revealed further complexities in the three Hanson and Brown domains. Personal and organizational issues were found to exist in both instructional and professional areas. Teacher participation was found to be positively correlated to the level of influence. Principals felt that teachers exerted more influence than teacher responses indicated.

Robinson (1976) highlights four major findings from studies of teacher participation

²⁷M.A. Smylie, "The Enhancement Function of Staff Development: Organizational and Psychological Antecedents to Individual Teacher Change. *AERA Journal*, 25 (1), 1-30.

in school decision-making: 1) Teachers' preferred level of involvement in school decision-making is greater than their actual level of involvement, in most cases. 2) Teachers' desires for participation in decision-making vary from decisional area to decisional area. 3) Increased teacher involvement in school decision-making produces positive consequences both for the individual teacher (e.g. higher level of job satisfaction) and for the school organization (e.g. increased innovativeness). 4) The desire for involvement in decision-making on the part of teachers is related to certain personal and positional characteristics of teachers.²⁸

Sheely (1970) reported the following regarding teacher participation in shared decision-making:

- 1) The amount of participation, as perceived by teachers, is not commensurate with the amount of participation desired. In most cases there are but two or three areas out of a total of eleven to twenty-five where actual and desired participation are similar and in most cases the difference is ten percent or more.
- 2) When data from board members, administrators, and teachers regarding the level of participation are compared, it is found that board members and administrators consistently perceive a higher level of teacher participation than do teachers themselves.
- 3) Teachers generally recommend that participation should be increased greatly.
- 4) Both administrators and teachers are in agreement that full teacher participation exists to the greatest extent in these areas: grievances, teacher welfare, application of curriculum, assembly programs, and textbook selection.

²⁸Norman Robinson, "Patterns of Participatory Management in Schools," Paper presented at the Annual Conference of the Canadian Association for the Study of Educational Administration (Quebec City, Quebec; June 1976), p.8.

- 5) Teachers indicate only a mild interests in participating in these areas: transportation, census, cafeteria, attendance, supervision of instruction, operation and maintenance of school buildings, and financial security, purchasing and storage and delivery.²⁹

Increased teacher satisfaction has often been reported as a beneficial outcome of participative decision making: Alutto and Belasco (1972), Sparkes (1981), Hoy and Miskel (1982). A study by William A. Neidt (1987) focused specifically on the factors contributing to teacher satisfaction with shared decision-making at the high school level. This study explored the effects of the independent variables of: knowledge and complexity of the topic, degree of influence and involvement, phase entered in the decision-making process, benefits and effects from the decision, expected and unexpected rewards, implementation, attitude toward teaching on general satisfaction with shared decision-making and specific satisfaction with a particular shared decision-making experience. Specific individual teacher satisfaction was explained to the greatest degree by the factors of benefit to self, self-perception of influence, implementation of the decision and benefit to the school. General satisfaction and specific satisfaction were considered to be different domains. Factor analysis of the independent variables resulted in the establishment of six factors related to specific satisfaction: participation in the decision-making process, anticipated outcomes from the decision, unexpected rewards from the decision, expected rewards from the decision, background information, and complexity of the issue involved in the decision.³⁰

Felker (1980) examined the relationship between teacher implementation of an innovation, the instructional programming model (IPM) in individual guided education

²⁹Richard L. Sheely, An Analysis of Staff Participation in Policy Formulation. (Ed.D. dissertation, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1970) pp. 53-54.

³⁰William A. Neidt, Factors Contributing to Teacher Satisfaction with Shared Decision Making. (Doctoral dissertation, University of Kansas, 1986) pp.i-ii.

(IGE), and decisional participation in the elementary schools in Wisconsin. Felker developed the Decisional Participation Inventory (DPI) to measure issue importance and actual and desired frequency in conjunction with the extent of teacher involvement in decision-making. She found, however, that the distribution of the teacher level of use of the IPM innovation exhibited restricted variance. This precluded further examination of the participative decision-making relationship.

Erdeljac (1984) studied differences in the perceptions of superintendents and teacher union presidents regarding participative decision-making. Findings revealed that superintendents perceive a greater degree of teacher participation, a greater extent of participation, a better flow of communication, and a higher degree of influence on decisions than do teacher union presidents. Superintendents perceived that most formal structures serve to facilitate teacher participation more than did teacher union presidents.³¹ These data are in agreement with studies, in general, of administrator-subordinate perceptions.

HIGHLIGHTED ADVANTAGES OF SHARED DECISION-MAKING

Among the advantages Seashore and Abt Associates (1981) attribute to shared group decision-making are: "improved staff morale, sense of efficacy, sense of enhanced communication and articulation within and across grade levels, and professional development."³²

One can draw upon the theories of Maslow and hypothesize that the participant in shared decision-making fulfills higher level needs such as esteem and possibly approaches self-actualization. One must keep in mind that needs are hierarchical in order and that only

³¹Charles P. Erdeljac, Participative Decision Making in Pennsylvania Public Schools: Perceptions of Superintendents and Teacher Union Presidents, (Doctoral dissertation, University of Pittsburgh, 1984) pp.i-ii.

³²Louis K. Seashore, The Role of Local Action Teams in School Improvement: Linking Research and Development with Schools, Cambridge, MA: Abt Associates, Inc., pp. ii-48.

unfulfilled needs act as motivators.

Additional support comes from Herzberg's studies of motivation in which achievement, responsibility, and advancement serve as motivators. Participation in shared decision-making could serve as a motivator according to this view.

Argyris' theories would also support the importance of shared decision-making in the improved self-concept of the participants. He hypothesized that most human problems in organizations are the result of forcing staff into submissive and dependent roles. This prohibits self-actualization for employees and works against the goals of the institution.

Finally, McGregor's Theory Y posits that the theory Y administrator views him/herself as a developer of the potential of his followers. He/she views the employee as intrinsically good and rewards personal growth exemplified by the employee. The increased productivity of the employees is recognized and, hence, personal growth of the staff through activities such as participative decision-making is most desirable.

Harrison (1981) studied the impact of decision-making on administrator-subordinate communication behavior. Results of her study indicated that: the subordinates' perceptions of participation were associated with higher levels of information, receipt and transmission of information with administrators, and higher levels of interaction. The supervisors' perceptions of the degree of subordinate participation were not associated with the subordinates' perceptions of the degree of participation. The subordinates' perceptions regarding the administrators' participation were most strongly associated with the subordinates' trust in the administrator and perceived team building on the part of the administrator. High participation groups were characterized by significantly higher levels of team building on the part of supervisors, subordinate trust of the administrator and subordinate satisfaction with the administrator. Other important factors included the receipt of information from the supervisor and the subordinate's desire for interaction with the administrator. ³³

³³ Teresa M. Harrison, The Impact of Participative Decision Making on Supervisory and Subordinate

Research highlights additional benefits accruing from participative decision-making. The improved quality of the decisions is another benefit that has been reported to arise from shared decision-making: Griffiths (1977), Sparkes (1981), Snyder (1983). Improved climate and teacher morale are among the benefits cited by: Griffiths (1977); and Hoy and Miskel (1982). Further, authors report a feeling of ownership among the decision-making participants, and better acceptance of the decisions: Sparkes (1981) and Hoy and Miskel (1982).

In summary, advantages include, improved morale, increased likelihood that the follower will accept the decision, improved cooperation between administration and the subordinates, and improved adaptability to changes that might result from the decisions.

HIGHLIGHTED DISADVANTAGES OF SHARED DECISION-MAKING

Disadvantages of shared decision-making in the literature focus on increased time demands and the risk of disfavor among colleagues, Duke et. al. (1980). Strauss (1964) reported four negative outcomes resulting from participative decision-making: 1) alienation of the participant when his/her ideas are rejected by the group, 2) an expectation on the part of participants that they will be frequent participants in future decision-making, 3) the time-cost of the shared decision-making process, and 4) the possible alienation of the group if their decisions are rejected by the administration.

Erdeljac (1984) cites Bartunek and Keys (1979) in noting that teachers want to participate when their input contributes to positive decisions, but that when teachers have trust in the administration to formulate decisions in their favor, they want little participation in the decision-making process. Further problems may arise when teachers participate for the wrong reasons, not because they wish to participate in the generation of an optimal problem solution, but rather because they have no better options at the particular point in

Communication Behavior. (Doctoral dissertation, Bowling Green State University, 1981) pp.96-97.

time or because they like the "symbolic outcomes" accrued by participation. Caution is given that teachers may view the process as an end in and of itself and ignore the needs dictated by the proposed implementations for problem resolution.

Blumberg (1969) reports that participative decision-making can result in role confusion and conflict for both principals and teachers. Teachers may feel that additional duties are being thrust upon them and that they are now required to do the administrator's job as well. Staff may become distrustful of the administrator in the role of empathetic listener. Problems can also arise if participants are not prepared for the new tasks required through training.³⁴

Lapposa (1971) noted that as decisional teams and ad hoc groups got larger (five or more people) they tended to become less rational. Hence, team membership, the experience of the team members in the organization, and the size of the group as well as the procedures involved in the decisional process can impact on the success of the exercise.

One must also consider the possibility that while administration may be philosophically committed to the notion of shared decision-making, other circumstances may mitigate against the success of the approach. Argyris (1973) states, "Very few people can learn new behavior and internalize patterns that will not vanish under stress."³⁵

Lipham (1982) concludes the following regarding shared decision-making in schools:

1. The philosophy and organization of the school affect decision-making. Hence, schools should be structured to provide opportunities for those affected by a decision to participate in making it.
2. There is an increased desire on the part of teachers and other staff members to become involved in the decision-making process on matters of schoolwide and districtwide scope, as well as on matters concerning the classroom.

³⁴ Arthur Blumberg, "Developing Teacher Decision-Making Through Structural Interventions," Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association (Los Angeles, CA; Feb., 1969), pp.3-8.

³⁵ Chris Argyris, "The CEO's Behavior: Key to Organizational Development," Harvard Business Review, March-April 1973, p. 56.

3. Appropriate involvement of staff in decision-making is significantly and positively related to the outcomes of staff satisfaction and teaching effectiveness.
4. In schools, there is excessive reliance on the total group decision-making model. Administrators and supervisors should increase their theoretical understandings and leadership skills regarding the decision-making process.³⁶

NECESSARY PRECURSORS TO SHARED DECISION-MAKING

Koehler (1976) states: "New structures and procedures must be developed which, first, identify those teachers who are seeking greater decisional authority; second, encourage competent but decisionally saturated teachers to sustain involvement; third, invest participating teachers with authorities and responsibilities that are commensurate with their levels of decisional input; and fourth, develop and maintain the functional interaction within the system which is necessary to the generation of viable decisions. Finally, all participants in the decision-making process should be held accountable for their decisions."³⁷

Vargas (1986) studied participative management among selected Los Angeles county elementary school principals. Her study focused on determination of the elementary school principals' familiarity with participative management, their actual use of participative management, their willingness to use participative management and deterrents to its use. She also attempted to determine the relationship between the use of participative management and the schools' working climates. She concluded that elementary school principals in Los Angeles county were familiar with the concept of participative decision-making. They used and were willing to use team decision-making in many decisional areas of school management, but reserved staff assignments, hiring new personnel, and

³⁶James M. Lipham, "Administrators and Supervisors," in Improving Educational Standards and Productivity, ed. by Herbert J. Walberg (Berkeley: McCutchan Publishing Corp., 1982) p.28.

³⁷Michael D. Koehler, "Shared Decision-making: Implications for Teachers," Illinois School Journal (Winter 1975-6) pp.1-2.

developing of the annual budget as domains where they alone decided or at a minimum, were willing to consult with teachers before deciding. The principal's actual use and willingness to use participative decision-making were closely related. While Los Angeles county elementary school principals indicated that several factors of positive school climate were present in their schools, there was little evidence that this was directly attributable to the use of participative management strategies with teachers. The lack of staff training was the reason cited most frequently as the deterrent to the utilization of this process.

Wallace, Radvak-Shovlin, Pischolish and LeMahieu (1990) comment on the implementation of shared decision-making.

If training is viewed as staff development, the research of Joyce and Showers (1987) could be applied to the implementation of shared decision-making processes in school: learners practice expected behaviors, receive feedback on their performance, and receive coaching to insure effective application, if they are to demonstrate the behaviors expected in shared decision-making. Viewed as an innovation that requires significant changes in participant behavior, shared decision-making is a growth process for individuals and institutions and requires attention to developmental stages of concern and levels of use (Hall, et. al., 1987).³⁸

FINDINGS REGARDING THE APPLICATION OF SITUATIONAL AND CONTINGENCY LEADERSHIP THEORIES TO EDUCATION

Indvik (1985) states, "From among the findings of this dissertation, those that may have the greatest implications for refining path-goal theory are the results that situational contingencies differentially moderate leader behaviors, and therefore, that leader behaviors are differentially effective in particular situations."³⁹ While the Indvik study focussed on

³⁸Richard C. Wallace, Jr. Betty Radvak-Shovlin, Marina Pischolish, and Paul LeMahieu, "The Instructional Cabinet and Shared Decision-Making in the Pittsburgh Public Schools: Theory, Practice and Evaluation," (Paper presented to annual meeting of American Educational Research Association, Boston, MA.) April, 1990, p.6.

³⁹Julie Indvik, A Path-Goal Theory Investigation of Superior-Subordinate Relationships, (Doctoral

the path-goal theory, the emphasis on situation and contingency theory is evident.

Punch and Ducharme (1972) studied the Hersey-Blanchard Situational Leadership model using elementary school teachers as followers and principals as leaders. They believed that the lower the maturity level of the teacher, the more they would prefer a task oriented leader and that the higher the maturity level of the teacher, the more they would prefer a relations oriented leader. Defining maturity as achievement motivation, independence and responsibility, they measured these traits using items from the Personality Research Form AA and Gough's California Psychological Inventory. The preferred leader behavior was measured by a modification of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire. The reverse relationships were obtained between preferred leader behavior and teacher maturity. The data were reorganized and the subjects were rank ordered and divided into high, medium, and low maturity groups. Rather than a curvilinear relationship, a linear relationship was found, with high maturity teachers preferring a higher level of relations orientation than teachers in the medium and low maturity groups. The authors found no relationship between maturity and the preference for a task oriented leader.⁴⁰

Roach (1981) examined perceived principal effectiveness as a function of the relationship between leadership style and job related maturity of elementary school teachers. Roach noted that the development and application of the Hersey-Blanchard Situational Leadership model was primarily in the area of business administration and hence, his study would extend its utilization to educational administration settings. In studying urban, suburban, small city and rural county schools of Ohio, he determined that principals whose leadership styles matched the job related maturity levels of the teachers were not perceived by the teachers as being more effective than those principals whose

dissertation, University of Wisconsin-Madison, 1985) p.169.

⁴⁰K. Punch and D. Ducharme, "Life Cycle Leadership Theory: Some Empirical Evidence," The Journal of Educational Administration, 1972 (10) (1), pp.66-77.

leadership styles did not match the teacher's job related maturity levels.

Miller (1982) studied the use of principal contingency leadership in elementary organizations. Miller utilized the Fiedler contingency leadership model and the House and Dessler path-goal theory to provide the theoretical basis. He hypothesized that teacher self-concept, role clarity, task structure, leader power and leader-member relations would be related to leader behavior. In turn, leader behavior, it was hypothesized, would be related to work satisfaction and work motivation. Finally, he hypothesized that these factors, in addition to school demographics, would be related to school-level achievement outcomes. Results of this study utilizing 253 elementary school teachers in a suburban Louisiana school district indicated that these variables were related as predicted. It was noted, however, that the correlation pattern indicated that contingency leadership did not play an educationally significant part in advancing school-level outcomes in terms of student reading achievement.⁴¹

Review of the contingency and situational leadership studies indicates mixed findings in terms of their application to educational settings. It appears that further research in this area is necessary.

SCHOOL-BASED MANAGEMENT AND TEACHER EMPOWERMENT: THE FOCUS OF REFORM

Malen and Ogawa (1988) define site-based management:

Site-based governance is promoted as a means to decentralize and democratize educational policy making, a means to energize and revitalize school systems. Although there are different versions of site-based governance, essentially the approach involves creating formal structures (committees, cabinets, councils, or boards) composed of building administrators, teachers and parents at each school. Often termed school councils, these bodies become the primary forum for

⁴¹William J. Miller, A Study of Principal Contingency Leadership in Elementary School Organizations. (Doctoral dissertation, The University of New Orleans, 1982) p. ix.

shared decision-making, the designated arena for professional-patron determination of school-level policy.⁴²

David (1989) reviews the history of school-based management.

In the 1960s and 1970s, certain forms of school-based management, usually called decentralization and school-site budgeting, had a wave of popularity. These were adopted in order to give political power to local communities, increase administrative efficiency or offset state authority. In the late 1980s, however, school-based management is a focus of attention for quite different reasons. Districts are implementing school-based management today to bring about significant change in educational practice: to empower school staff to create conditions in schools that facilitate improvement, innovation, and continuous professional growth. Current interest is a response to evidence that our education system is not working, and in particular, that strong central control actually diminishes teachers' morale and, correspondingly, their level of effort.⁴³

David (1989) highlights Dade County, Florida, Montgomery County, Maryland, Baton Rouge, Louisiana, and Santa Fe, New Mexico among the sites that have implemented the school-based management "experiment." She notes that though school-based management has many forms, it largely consists of school-level autonomy accompanied by participatory decision-making.

Tannenbaum hypothesizes that an administrator's power is never lost when shared with his/her subordinates. It is rather increased by improved relationships within the organization. This has been a thrust of teacher empowerment efforts.

Malen, Ogawa, and Krantz (1989) conducted a comprehensive review of the literature on school-based management and determined that while descriptions of the process were abundant, evidence of operational effectiveness was meager. While they hypothesized that

⁴²Betty Malen and Rodney T. Ogawa, "Professional-Patron Influence on Site-Based Governance Councils: A Confounding Case Study," Educational evaluation and Policy Analysis. Winter, 1988, Vol. 10, No. 4, p. 251.

⁴³Jane L. David, "Synthesis of Research on School-Based Management," Educational Leadership, Volume 46, Number 8, May, 1989 p.45.

school-based management may not be able to fulfill its stated objectives, they further noted that more research is necessary.

In an examination of site-based management in the Salt Lake City schools, where each school has two councils: a School Improvement Council including administrators, teachers, non-certified staff and a School Community Council, it was determined that teachers and parents did not significantly influence the operation of the schools. Malen and Ogawa (1988) concluded that more training and more willingness on the part of the principals to share decision-making with the councils might have changed the results.

In her paper "School-Based Management/Shared Decision-Making: Perspectives of Hawaii School Principals," Ganopole (1990) examines one aspect of this process in Hawaii, principal receptiveness. In 1988, SB1870 legislated the School/Community Based Management Program in Hawaii public schools. Ganopole states:

Embedded in this act is the increasingly popular notion that all participants affected by decisions, including principals, teachers, support staff, students, parents, and community members, should play a significant role in the decision-making process...A key issue was how school improvement would be measured...Of concern, was the degree to which principals would support this new innovation. There was little doubt that without their support the possibility of success would be greatly diminished.⁴⁴

Ganopole surveyed 139 school principals regarding teacher participation in decision-making. Findings revealed a significant correlation between principals' perceptions of the importance of teacher involvement in the decision-making process and the extent to which teachers in their schools participated in decision-making. This was most pronounced in the areas of textbook selection, teacher selection, student placement, discipline, and student promotion/retention. Significant correlations also were evident in the principals' perceptions of the teachers' knowledge and skills in the key decisional areas and the extent

⁴⁴Selina J. Ganopole, "School-Based Management/Shared Decision Making: Perspectives of Hawaii School Principals," (Paper presented to annual meeting of American Educational Research Association, Boston, MA.) April, 1990, p.1.

that the teachers participated in decision-making. Teacher participation in decision-making was associated with the degree to which principals felt that the teachers had sufficient knowledge and skills, the degree to which the principals felt that they had the authority to make decisions, and the degree to which the principals felt the participation was important to student achievement.

Strusinski (1990) discusses the evolution of shared decision-making and school-based management in the Dade County Public Schools. In this study, Strusinski indicates that there is the phenomenon of a few teachers carrying the majority of the workload in school-based management and shared decision-making. In examining the staff development needs, she makes the following recommendations:

- 1) Thoughtful pre-planning is necessary in order to provide staff with the requisite understanding of the functioning of the shared decision-making body.
- 2) Intensive workshops need to supplement the planning process during the development of shared decision-making.
- 3) It should be expected that during the initial phases of the program, adjustments will have to be made as new experiences dictate.
- 4) As experience with school-based management and shared decision-making grows, school staff should be given somewhat more structure in the design of their individual programs.
- 5) Finally, there should be ongoing, formative research in the field to assist both original participants and future participants in designing effective school-based management and shared decision-making programs.⁴⁵

Pick (1989) notes that the Hammond city schools were amongst the first districts to attempt the school-based management approach. In February of 1989, he interviewed Hammond educators on their thoughts regarding the Chicago plan. Pat O'Rourke, the Hammond teachers' union president predicted, "The Chicago reforms put too much power

⁴⁵Marianne Strusinski, "The Evolution of Shared Decision-Making in School-Based Management," (Paper presented to annual meeting of American Educational Research Association, Boston, MA.) April, 1990, p. 5.

in the hands of the parent councils. Parents should not be making decisions on professionals. The patient shouldn't be allowed in the operating room to tell the surgeon what to do."⁴⁶

This leads to the question of how well will this approach work in Chicago? If as Walberg, Bakalis, Bast, and Baer note in their article, "Restructuring the Nation's Worst Schools," (June 1989), the causes of Chicago's problems include: "centralized administration, a flourishing bureaucracy, and the absence of choice for both taxpayers and parents," school reform based on the principles of school-based management and shared decision-making should have a major impact on school outcomes."⁴⁷ This study will explore the use of shared decision-making in selected Chicago public elementary schools during this first year of Reform.

SUMMARY

Review of the literature indicates the complexities of the shared decision-making process, its advantages, and disadvantages. Studies indicate the need to look at possible mediating variables. A look at the research on the application of contingency or situational leadership models to this area of study yielded mixed results.

School-based management and teacher empowerment are issues at the forefront of school reform, yet the use of the shared decision-making model in educational decision-making has not been proven by the research to yield positive results in the area of measurable school outcomes. It becomes clear that further research is necessary to determine optimal models for school improvement.

⁴⁶Grant Pick, "School-Based Management: A Key Element of Chicago's School-Reform Strategy was pioneered in Hammond, Indiana," The Reader, February 24, 1989, p.16.

⁴⁷Herbert J. Walberg, Michael J. Bakalis, Joseph L. Bast, and Steven Baer, "Restructuring the Nation's Worst Schools," Phi Delta Kappan, June 1989, p.805.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH PROCEDURES AND METHODOLOGY

INTRODUCTION

The preceding chapters have highlighted that while extensive research has been done in the area of decision-making, many questions remain. Further, that while administrative theory can serve as a guide in the implementation of effective decision-making, conclusive evidence does not exist to support the application of the Situational Leadership theory to educational settings. It was demonstrated that in its construct, this theory is closely aligned to the implementation of decision-making.

Reform movements throughout the United States have promoted the use of school-based management and teacher empowerment as desirable formats for the implementation of decision-making. The thrust of the philosophy is that increased utilization of shared decision-making will result in more effective planning with resulting positive educational outcomes.

The purpose of this study is to examine these issues. The focus of the analysis is selected Chicago public elementary schools. Chicago provides a concrete example of the application of shared decision-making in local school planning. Recent school reform has mandated participation in the school planning process by: teachers, parents, career service staff, community representatives, and the principal. Chicago serves as a setting for school-based management in action.

In selecting an appropriate method for this study, it was determined that the descriptive research approach would be most appropriate. Isaac and Michael (1982) note that the purpose of descriptive research is: "to describe systematically a situation or area of interest factually and accurately."⁴⁸ These authors further state, "Descriptive research is used in the literal sense of describing situations or events. It is the accumulation of a data base that is solely descriptive--it does not necessarily seek or explain relationships, test hypotheses, make predictions, or get at meanings and implications, although research aimed at these more powerful purposes may incorporate descriptive methods."⁴⁹

Gay (1987) further defines descriptive research: "Descriptive research involves collecting data in order to test hypotheses or to answer questions concerning the current status of the subject of the study. A descriptive study determines and reports the way things are. Descriptive data are usually collected through a questionnaire survey, interviews, or observation. Just as the historical researcher has no control over what was, the descriptive researcher has no control over what is and can only measure what already exists."⁵⁰

Best and Kahn (1989) state:

Descriptive research, sometimes known as nonexperimental or correlational research deals with the relationships between variables, the testing of hypotheses, and the development of generalizations, principles, or theories that have universal validity. It is concerned with functional relationships.⁵¹

It is seen that while there is consensus that descriptive research deals with the here and now, controversy exists in terms of just how far this type of research should go. This

⁴⁸Stephen Isaac and William B. Michael. Handbook on Research and Evaluation. San Diego: Edits publishers, 1982, p.42.

⁴⁹Stephen Isaac and William B. Michael. Handbook on Research and Evaluation. San Diego: Edits publishers, 1982, p.46.

⁵⁰L. R. Gay. Educational Research: Competencies for Analysis and Application. Columbus: Merrill Publishing Company, 1987, p. 189.

⁵¹John W. Best and James V. Kahn, Research in Education, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 1989, p.77.

study utilized the Best and Kahn (1989) conceptualization of descriptive research.

In considering the method, one next explores the categories of research: quantitative and qualitative research. Firestone, in volume 16 of Educational Research, discusses the "Meaning in the Method." He highlights the differences in the two approaches in terms of their assumptions about the world, their purpose, the approach utilized, and the researcher's role.

1. **Assumptions about the world:** Quantitative research is based on a positivist philosophy which assumes that there are social facts with an objective reality apart from the beliefs of individuals. Qualitative research is rooted in a phenomenological paradigm which holds that reality is socially constructed through individual or collective definitions of the situation.
2. **Purpose:** Quantitative research seeks to explain the causes of changes in social facts, primarily through objective measurement and quantitative analysis. Qualitative research is more concerned with understanding of the actual phenomenon from the actors' perspectives through participation in the life of those actors.
3. **Approach:** The quantitative researcher typically employs experimental or correlational designs to reduce error, bias, and other noise that keeps one from clearly perceiving social facts. The prototypical qualitative study is the ethnography which helps the reader understand the definitions of the situation of those studied.
4. **Researcher role:** The ideal quantitative researcher is detached to avoid bias. The qualitative researcher becomes immersed in the phenomenon of interest.⁵²

While this study clearly is more qualitative in nature, it does contain elements of the quantitative approach. Utilizing the School Planning Questionnaire, the Hersey, et. al. Situational Leadership instruments, and interview, a multi-method approach is employed. Sandra Mathison states: " Good research practice obligates the researcher to triangulate, that is, to use multiple methods, data sources, and researchers to enhance the validity of

⁵²William A. Firestone. "Meaning in Method: The Rhetoric of Quantitative and Qualitative Research," Educational Researcher, Volume 16, Number 7, 1987, pp. 16-17.

research findings."⁵³ As advocated by Isaac and Michael (1982) "the triangulation measurement process is far more powerful evidence supporting the proposition than the single criterion approach."⁵⁴

SAMPLE AND SELECTION OF PARTICIPANTS

SELECTION OF THE SCHOOLS

The Chicago public schools consist of nearly 413,000 students. Elementary schools in the district are comprised of nearly 301,000 students. The elementary school population is approximately 60% Black, 25% Hispanic, 12% White, and 3% Asian. The mean percent of low income students in attendance for 1989 was 42.6 % for elementary schools.⁵⁵

The sample for this study was designed to focus on selected urban elementary schools. Since the focus of the research was on shared decision-making and the application of the Hersey and Blanchard Situational Leadership model, it was determined that a group of similar schools be selected. Earlier studies conducted by the Chicago Board of Education on the Institutes for School Planning ("The 1986 Institute for School Planning Evaluation Report," "The 1987 Institute for School Planning Evaluation Report," and "Follow-up to the 1987 Institute for School Planning Report") described the planning process and suggested that larger schools engaged in less shared decision-making and that the percent of low-income students in attendance was a predictor of school achievement test scores on the Iowa Tests of Basic Skills. It was hypothesized that smaller schools, with

⁵³ Sandra Mathison, "Why Triangulate?," Educational Researcher, Volume 17, Number 2, March 1988, p.13.

⁵⁴ Stephen Isaac and William B. Michael. Handbook on Research and Evaluation. San Diego: Edits publishers, 1982, p.92.

⁵⁵ Chicago Public Schools. Selected Characteristics of Elementary Schools, 1989.

higher socioeconomic status levels, higher achievement levels, and principals with at least three years of administrative experience, might have fewer problems in implementing the shared decision-making model as applied to school planning. The sample would consist of 15 similar schools selected using these criteria.

Descriptive data on Chicago public elementary schools from the Chicago Public Schools 1988-89 Test Scores and Selected School Characteristics book were entered in a data base utilizing the Statworks statistical program. Schools that served as regional sites for specialized populations (special education and gifted) were excluded from the sample. Schools that were racially isolated were also excluded from the sample. Descriptive statistics on the number of teachers, students, percent of low income students in attendance were tabulated. The descriptive data for the 361 schools in the data base follow:

Table 1. Descriptive Data on 361 Chicago Public Elementary Schools.

Category	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Standard Deviation
Teachers	35.9	9	98	13.4
Students	673.7	147	1922	277.9
% of Low Income	41.2%	.3%	93.2%	21.2

Utilizing these data, schools that were within one standard deviation below the mean in the number of teachers, and percent of low-income students in attendance were determined. These were smaller schools with higher income student populations. The Chicago Public Schools 1988-89 Test Scores and School Characteristics book was also used to determine school achievement scores on the Iowa Tests of Basic Skills. Scores on the reading comprehension subtest and math total scores for the pool of possible schools were identified. Those schools whose median grade equivalents fell within the fifth stanine or above were included in the sample. From this pool of schools, the years of

administrative experience was determined by checking with identified schools and confirming records with the personnel department.

Using these criteria, the pool of 361 elementary schools was narrowed to 41 possible elementary schools. A random table of numbers was then utilized to select schools from this population. Letters explaining the study were mailed to the principals of the identified schools and follow-up phone calls were made. This process began in January, 1990. Since it was necessary for schools to go through local school councils for approval, the sample selection process was prolonged until April, 1990. A total of 20 schools agreed to participate in the study. Two dropped out after receiving the materials. This left 18 possible sites for the study. It was determined that the study would focus on 15 similar schools. The other three sites were used to pilot the instruments.

SELECTION OF THE PARTICIPANTS

Principals participating in the study were requested to identify those persons who were involved in the decision-making process for the development of the school's action plan. This plan was designed to identify the school's objective in a particular area and to determine how the school proposed to meet that objective. In order to focus the participants on the planning process, four key areas of planning were identified: student achievement in reading, student achievement in mathematics, student attendance, and teacher attendance. Hence, the participants in this study were the identified decision-makers who participated in the development school's current action plan in any of the four areas targeted: student achievement in reading, student achievement in mathematics, student attendance, and teacher attendance. Participants included principals, teachers, parents, community representatives, and career service personnel. It was possible that the

number and position of the participants would vary from school to school.

INSTRUMENTS

Part one of this study focused on shared decision-making in local school planning. In order to describe this process in the selected elementary schools, two approaches were utilized, the questionnaire and the follow-up interview.

The School Planning Questionnaire was administered to identified persons who participated in the school planning process for the identified objectives. A copy of this instrument is located in the appendix to this report. This instrument provides data in the following areas: identifying information (school, position, membership on the local school council, experience in teaching and planning, age, sex), areas where the individual participated in planning, the extent to which the individual participated, the extent to which the individual wanted to participate, statement of the objectives in planning for the target areas, number and frequency of persons participating for the key objectives, identification of who set the agenda for planning, perceived involvement and influence in the planning process, perceived effects of planning, perceived implementation of the decisions, benefits and problems of shared planning, and unexpected outcomes from shared decision-making. The instrument consisted of open-ended as well as closed response types. Key items were scaled on a five-point Likert-type scale.

The structured interview was utilized to describe bases for participant selection in the decision-making process, identification of training needs in the area of shared planning, identification of perceived factors that determine the success of shared decision-making and opinions regarding what influences the participants the most in reaching decisions. Data also clarified the thinking of the participants where responses were incomplete. At least one person representing each participant type at a school was interviewed.

Part two of the study focuses on the application of the Hersey-Blanchard Situational Leadership model. Two instrument types were utilized, 1) the Problem -Solving and Decision-Making Style Inventory and 2) the Readiness-Style Match.

All of the participants in the shared decision-making process for the planning of the identified objectives completed the Problem-Solving and Decision-Making Style Inventory. Two versions were provided, one for the principal (perception of self) and one for the other participants in planning (perception of other). This instrument summarized the perceptions of the group and the principal regarding the principal's behavior in problem-solving and decision-making. Two statements describing the principal's behavior were provided. Respondents were to assign from one to three points to indicate the statement that most reflected the principal's style. Each of the statements was descriptive of one of the quadrants in the Hersey-Blanchard model (high directive behavior/low supportive behavior (A), high directive behavior/high supportive behavior (B), high supportive behavior/low directive behavior (C), and low directive behavior/low supportive behavior (D). Behavior A was identified as telling, B as selling, C as participating, and D as delegating. The sum of A+B indicated leader-made decisions, B+C indicated collaborative decisions, and C+D was equated to follower-made decisions. This model also indicated appropriate and inappropriate application of the model. If used inappropriately, the telling behavior was viewed as coercive, the selling behavior as manipulating, the participative behavior as patronizing, and the delegating behavior as avoiding. The highest scores indicated the principal's primary style of leadership, while the next highest score was indicative of the principal's secondary style.

This theory advocates that when leadership styles are appropriately utilized, they are matched with the readiness level of the follower. Readiness is measured by ability and willingness. Four readiness ratings are possible and are defined by Hersey and Natemeyer as follows:

- R1**=Unable to make the decision or solve the problem and either unwilling or insecure.
R2=Unable to make the decision or solve the problem, but willing or confident.
R3=Able to make the decision or solve the problem, but unwilling or insecure.
R4=Able to make the decision or solve the problem and willing or confident.⁵⁶

Hence, this instrument provided information on the primary and secondary style that the principal was utilizing in problem-solving and decision-making in the planning process for the stated objectives. It also provided information on whether or not there was consensus on the style that the principal was utilizing with a given planning group. Key information on the School Planning Questionnaire regarding training was tabulated to compute "readiness" scores. When compared with the data on the inventory, it was possible to estimate the "readiness match" for the group. As a validity check, the Readiness Style Match instruments developed by Hersey, Blanchard, and Keilty (1989) were utilized to determine the readiness levels of key participants in the planning process.

The second instrument in the Hersey-Blanchard model that was utilized was the Readiness Style Match. The principal identified key decision-makers in the planning process. These data are cross-referenced with information on the School Planning Questionnaire to ensure reliability. These persons and the principal completed the Readiness instruments. The Perception of Manager form was completed by the principal and the Perception of Staff Member form was completed by the identified participants in decision-making. Participants in the study were instructed to substitute the word principal for manager, and planning team member for staff member.

The purpose of these instruments was to help the principal and the planning participants to determine their individual perceptions regarding the match between the

⁵⁶Paul Hersey and Walter E. Natemeyer. "Problem-Solving and Decision-Making Style Inventory," San Diego: Leadership studies Inc., 1982, p. 4.

principal's leadership style and the participant's readiness level. The four leadership dimensions of telling, selling, participating, and delegating are defined in the following statements:

Telling	Provide specific instructions and closely supervise performance.
Selling	Explain your decisions and provide opportunity for clarification.
Participating	Share ideas and facilitate in making decisions.
Delegating	Turn over responsibility for decisions and implementation. ⁵⁷

The persons completing the form entered the major objectives or responsibilities involved in the planning process. They then indicated the primary and secondary style that the principal used with them in the planning process, after reading the above definition statements. Each objective was then rated in terms of the individual's readiness to work on a particular objective. Readiness was rated in terms of job readiness and psychological readiness on the four-point scale with half-point ratings provided. The readiness style match matrix was then utilized to determine if there was an appropriate match between the leadership style and the readiness ratings. This instrument was utilized to determine if the Hersey-Blanchard Situational Leadership theory was being applied in the principal's work with key decision-makers on the targeted planning objectives.

VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY OF THE INSTRUMENTS UTILIZED IN THIS STUDY

Hopkins, Stanley, and Hopkins (1990) state: "The validity of a measure is how well it fulfills the function for which it is being used."⁵⁸ Best and Kahn (1989) state, "Basic to the validity of a questionnaire is asking the right questions, phrased in the least ambiguous

⁵⁷Paul Hersey, Kenneth H. Blanchard, and Joseph W. Keilty, "Readiness Style Match: Staff Member/Manager," San Diego: Leadership studies, Inc., 1989, p.1.

⁵⁸Kenneth D. Hopkins, Julian C. Stanley, and B.R. Hopkins, Educational and Psychological Measurement and Evaluation, Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall, 1990, p.76.

way. In other words, do the items sample a significant aspect of the purpose of the investigation?"⁵⁹

In order to ensure the content validity of the School Planning Questionnaire, items were derived from a review of past studies and what were found to be significant aspects of the shared decision-making process. Key terms were defined and contact was established with the participants where questions arose. A follow-up interview was conducted with the participants to clarify any issues.

Tuckman (1988) states: "Test reliability means that a test is consistent."⁶⁰

Precautions were taken to ensure the reliability of the School Planning instrument. The School Planning instrument was field tested in three schools meeting the sample criteria. A Kuder-Richardson Formula 21 was then computed on like-scaled items. Kuder and Richardson (1937) devised this formula for estimating the reliability of an instrument without splitting it into halves. Hopkins et. al. (1990) state:

The rationale for Kuder and Richardson's formula 20 procedure, is roughly equivalent to 1) securing the mean of the k items in the test, 2) considering this to be the reliability coefficient of the typical item in the test, and 3) stepping up this average with the Spearman-Brown formula to estimate the reliability coefficient of a test consisting of k items.⁶¹

Hopkins et. al. indicate that the formula 21 is used for instruments containing more items. A table demonstrating the relationship between formulas 20 and 21 enables one to compute the relationship between the two reliability coefficients.

Gay (1987) states: "When well conducted, an interview can produce in-depth data not possible with a questionnaire; on the other hand, it is expensive and time consuming, and generally involves smaller samples."⁶² The interview provides the opportunity for

⁵⁹John W. Best and James V. Kahn, Research in Education, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 1989, pp. 193-194.

⁶⁰Bruce Tuckman. Conducting Educational Research, New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Publishers, 1988, p. 172.

⁶¹Kenneth D. Hopkins, Julian C. Stanley, and B.R. Hopkins. Educational and Psychological Measurement and Evaluation, Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall, 1990, p.132.

clarification. Best and Kahn (1989) state that for an interview to be reliable the interviewer must be carefully trained. This condition was met through university coursework and experience with the Chicago Public Schools.

In determining the reliability and validity of the Hersey et. al. instruments, the findings of other studies on the model were examined. Validity and reliability measures did not accompany the instruments of this widely used battery. The LEAD company emphasized that the instruments were ipsative in nature. Roach (1981) states "While Hersey and Blanchard have developed a scale to measure maturity, the scale lacks sufficient norms and is based upon the assumption that leaders can accurately assess the maturity level of followers."⁶³

RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND NULL HYPOTHESES:

METHODS FOR THE ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

PART ONE: THE SHARED DECISION-MAKING PROCESS IN SCHOOL PLANNING

Part one of this study examined the shared decision-making process as applied to the development of school action plans. The planning process focused on the development of objectives for improving student achievement in reading and mathematics and improvement of student and teacher attendance. The initial focus was on describing the

⁶²L. R. Gay, Educational Research: Competencies for Analysis and Application. Columbus: Merrill Publishing Company, 1987, p. 203.

⁶³Roach, D.R. Perceived Principal Effectiveness as a Function of the Relationship Between Leadership Style and Job Related Maturity of Elementary Teachers. (Doctoral dissertation, Ohio University, 1981).p.28.

shared decision-making process. The questions emerged from the effort to describe the process.

DESCRIPTION OF THE SHARED DECISION-MAKING PROCESS

1. What is the nature of shared decision-making in these selected urban elementary schools?

a) Who participates in the decision-making process at these sites? Characteristics explored include: position, age, sex, educational experience, experience in areas specific to the decisional area, and experience in the process of shared decision-making and planning. Descriptive statistics were computed on these data (measures of central tendency).

b) What role do these individuals play in the decisional process? What role do these individuals wish to play?

The School Planning Questionnaire outlined six categories of involvement in decision-making. The respondents indicated the areas they were involved in, the extent they wished to participate, and the extent they participated in decision-making for these areas.

Descriptive statistics were tabulated on these data.

The null hypotheses for this segment of the study are:

H_{01} = There is no difference in amount persons want to participate and the amount that they do participate.

H_{02} = There is no difference in the amount they participate based on position.

H_{03} = There is no difference in the amount they participate based on training rating (for mathematics and reading objectives only).

H_{04} = There is no difference in the amount they wish to participate based on position.

H_{05} = There is no difference in the amount they wish to participate based on training

rating (for mathematics and reading objectives only).

Chi-square analyses were computed to determine the answers to these questions.

Significance was assessed at the $p < .05$ value.

c) Which criteria seem to most strongly influence the degree of participation? How do perceptions differ on the criteria that should be used to determine participation? Is there a relationship between differing perceptions and position?

These data were determined by interviews. Descriptive data were tabulated and anecdotal information summarized.

The null hypothesis for this segment of the study is:

H_{06} = There is no difference in selection criteria based on position.

Chi-square analyses were computed to determine the answers to this questions.

Significance was assessed at the $p < .05$ value.

d) To what degree does shared decision-making take place?

Who participates?

How often do they participate?

Who controls the agenda?

How much involvement is perceived?

How much influence do persons perceive they have in the decisions?

In how many stages of decision-making are persons involved?

Descriptive data on these questions were tabulated. Means and standard deviations were determined.

Null hypotheses for the issues of degree of involvement and influence are:

H_{07} = There is no difference in the degree of involvement based on position.

H_{08} = There is no difference in the degree of involvement based on training rating (mathematics and reading only).

H_{09} = There is no difference in the degree of influence based on position.

H_{010} =There is no difference in the degree of influence based on training rating (mathematics and reading only).

Analysis of Variance procedures were utilized. Significance was assessed at the $p < .05$ value.

WHAT ARE THE DYNAMICS OF THE PROCESS OF SHARED DECISION-MAKING?

2. How do participants react when the decision reached is contrary to their view?

How does this vary by position?

What influences participants the most in reaching a decision?

These data were determined by interviews.

Descriptive data were tabulated and anecdotal information analyzed and summarized.

WHAT ARE THE PERCEIVED OUTCOMES OF SHARED DECISION-MAKING?

3. What are the perceived effects of shared decision-making in the areas of:

improvement of the school, improvement of the school's objectives, benefits to participants, time constraints, communication, staff motivation, staff morale, and unexpected outcomes?

Do the factors of training rating, degree that shared decision-making took place degree of perceived involvement, degree of perceived influence or the degree of perceived implementation of the decisions predict the ratings of planning effectiveness?

Null hypotheses for these issues are:

H_{011} =Training rating, degree that shared decision-making took place, degree of perceived involvement, degree of perceived influence and degree of perceived implementation do not predict the rating on improved reading.

H_{012} =Training rating, degree that shared decision-making took place, degree of perceived involvement, degree of perceived influence and degree of perceived implementation do not predict the rating on improved mathematics.

H_{013} =Degree of perceived involvement, degree of perceived influence, degree that shared decision-making took place, and degree of perceived implementation, do not predict the rating on improved student attendance.

H_{014} =Degree of perceived involvement, degree of perceived influence, degree that shared decision-making took place, and degree of perceived implementation, do not predict the rating on improved teacher attendance.

Multiple Regression Analysis was performed to determine the strength of the relationships. The relative strength of the predictor variables was determined. Significance was assessed at the $p < .05$ value.

PART 2: APPLICATION OF THE HERSEY-BLANCHARD SITUATIONAL LEADERSHIP THEORY TO LOCAL SCHOOL PLANNING

Part two of this study examined the Hersey-Blanchard Situational Leadership model and its application to educational settings. The specific arena for analysis was the task of school action planning and the involvement of shared decision-making. Two of the Hersey-Blanchard instruments were utilized in this process: The Decision-Making and Problem Solving Inventory and the Readiness Style-Match. Theory would predict

that schools which apply the model will perceive the decisions to be more effective.

APPLICATION OF THE PROBLEM-SOLVING AND DECISION-MAKING STYLE INVENTORY

1. The responses of the principal and the participants in planning were compared on two instruments: Problem-solving and Decision-making Style Inventory (Perception of Self) and Problem-solving and Decision-making Style Inventory (Perception of Other). Questions emanating from this portion of the study include: What is the principal's primary leadership style with the planning team? What is the principal's secondary leadership style with the planning team? What is the relative emphasis in decisions (leader-made, collaborative, or follower-made decisions)? Does the perception of emphasis vary by position, of the individual participants? The School Planning Questionnaire was utilized to determine a training rating for the participants. The question of application of the theory was analyzed in terms of the differences between the group training ratings and the leadership style utilized by the principal.

Descriptive data on these questions were tabulated.

Null hypotheses for the issues are:

H₀₁₅=There is no difference in the training rating and the leadership style.

H₀₁₆=There is no difference in the leadership style match and perceived effectiveness of planning in the area of reading.

H₀₁₇=There is no difference in the leadership style match and perceived effectiveness of planning in the area of mathematics.

Chi-square analyses were computed to determine the answers to these questions.

Significance was assessed at the $p < .05$ value.

APPLICATION OF THE READINESS STYLE-MATCH INVENTORY

2. The emphasis of the Hersey-Blanchard Leadership model is on the leader utilizing styles that match the staff member's readiness level (determined by maturity and motivation ratings). In this portion of the study, the principal indicated participants who were key figures in the planning process. The principal rated these participants on their maturity and motivation to work on objectives from the school planning process. Readiness levels were matched against the leadership styles utilized. Planning participants also rated these aspects. Questions from this portion of the study are as follows: Does the principal appear to be matching the readiness of the participants to his or her leadership style? Is there consensus between the participants and the principals in planning? Is decision-making perceived to be more effective in the schools where there is a readiness-style match (where the theory is appropriately applied)?

Descriptive data on these questions was tabulated.

Null hypotheses for the issues are:

H_{018} =There is no difference in the readiness rating of the individuals and the leadership style employed.

H_{019} =There is no difference in the leadership style match for the reading objective and the rating on improved reading.

H_{020} =There is no difference in the leadership style match for the mathematics objective and the rating on improved mathematics.

H_{021} =There is no difference in the leadership style match for the student attendance objective and the rating on improved student attendance.

H_{022} =There is no difference in the leadership style match for the teacher attendance objective and the rating on improved teacher attendance.

Chi-square analyses were computed to determine the answers to these questions.

Significance was assessed at the $p < .05$ value.

SUMMARY

The procedures outlined involve multiple methods to determine the nature of shared decision-making at these selected sites. The use of these procedures was designed to clarify the process of shared decision-making as it is currently operating in the era of school reform and to determine examples where it was perceived to be more effective. The secondary purpose of this study was to explore the utilization of the Hersey and Blanchard Situational Leadership theory and its application to educational settings. If, as the model suggests, decision-making should be delegated based on readiness, where the model is employed, decision-making should be perceived as being more effective.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

INTRODUCTION

The results of this study will be structured around the research questions outlined in chapter three. The first section will report on the findings of the pilot study with regard to the internal consistency of the School Planning Instrument. This will be followed by a description of the research sample and the presentation of the results focusing on: description of the shared decision-making process, the dynamics of the process of shared decision-making, the perceived outcomes of shared decision-making, and the application of the Hersey-Blanchard Situational Leadership theory to local school planning determined by the Problem-Solving and Decision-Making Style Inventory and the Readiness Style-Match.

INTERNAL CONSISTENCY OF THE SCHOOL PLANNING QUESTIONNAIRE FINDINGS FROM THE PILOT STUDY

Three schools meeting the demographic criteria specified in the methods section served as the group for analysis in the pilot study. The schools that were selected were within one standard deviation below the mean of all Chicago public elementary schools in the number of teachers, students, and percent of low-income students in attendance. Median grade equivalent scores fell within the fifth stanine or above on the Reading Comprehension subtest of the Iowa Tests of Basic Skills and the Math Total subtest of the Iowa Tests of

Basic Skills. Administrators of the schools included in the pilot study sample had a minimum of three years of administrative experience.

Principals identified those persons who participated in school planning on the four key areas of the study: improvement of reading, improvement of mathematics, improvement of student attendance, and improvement of teacher attendance. A total of 21 questionnaires were submitted for analysis. Descriptive data regarding the sample are presented in table 2 below. The average membership of the teams was 7 persons.

Table 2. Pilot Study Descriptive Data.

Position N (%)	Principal 3 (14.3%)	Assistant Principal 2(9.5%)	Teacher 14 (66.7%)	Parent 2(9.5%)
Age	$\bar{X} =$ 41-45 years			
Years of teaching experience (teachers and principals only)	$\bar{X} =$ 13-16 years			
Membership in LSC % Yes	30%			
Education	$\bar{X} =$ Masters Degree			
Principal years of experience	$\bar{X} =$ 4.3 years			
Participated in planning before % Yes	100%			

Examination of these data reveals that the teams consisted of persons experienced in school planning, with teachers representing a majority. Nearly one-third of the planning team members were also members of the local school councils at their schools.

The pilot study was designed to determine the reliability of the planning instrument. The Kuder-Richardson Formula 21 was utilized to determine reliability through the analysis of the internal consistency of the instrument. The formula is stated as:

$$PKR21 = \frac{k}{k-1} \left(1 - \frac{\text{mean}(k\text{-mean})}{(k \cdot \text{variance})} \right)$$

Reliability was computed on like-scaled items. The reliability coefficient of the planning instrument was found to be .92. This value indicates a high degree of internal consistency on the like-scaled items. It was concluded from the pilot study that the School Planning Instrument had sufficient internal consistency to provide a reliable description of the planning process.

SCHOOL PLANNING IN 15 SELECTED URBAN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS RESULTS FROM THE SCHOOL PLANNING QUESTIONNAIRE

PART ONE: THE SHARED DECISION-MAKING PROCESS IN SCHOOL PLANNING

Part one of this study examined the shared decision-making process as applied to the development of school action plans. The examination of the planning process focused on the development of the local school's objectives for improving student achievement in reading and mathematics and improvement of student and teacher attendance. The initial focus will be on describing the shared decision-making process.

DESCRIPTION OF THE SHARED DECISION-MAKING PROCESS

1. What is the nature of shared decision-making in these selected urban elementary schools?

a) Who participates in the decision-making process at these sites?

Characteristics explored include: position, age, sex, educational experience, experience in areas specific to the decisional area, and experience in the process of shared decision-making and planning.

DESCRIPTION OF THE RESEARCH SAMPLE

Principals participating in the study had identified those persons who were involved in the decision-making process for the development of the school's action plan. This plan is designed to identify the school's objective in a particular area and how the school proposes to meet that objective. In order to focus the participants on the planning process, four key areas of planning were identified: student achievement in reading, student achievement in mathematics, student attendance, and teacher attendance. Hence, the participants in this study were the identified decision-makers who participated in the development of the school's current action plan in any one or more of the four areas targeted: student achievement in reading, student achievement in mathematics, student attendance, and teacher attendance. Participants could be principals, teachers, parents, community representatives, or career service personnel. It was also possible that the number and position of the participants would vary from school to school.

A total of 114 planning questionnaires from the 15 schools included in the study were submitted for analysis. A summary of the overall responses to the items on this instrument

is located in the appendix to this paper. Description of the overall sample is presented in table 3 below.

Table 3. Descriptive Data From the School Planning Questionnaire (overall sample).

N=114 (Percentages are rounded values and adjusted for missing responses)

Position	Principal	Assistant Principal	Teacher	Parent
N (%)	15 (13.2%)	12 (10.5%)	70 (61.4%)	14 (12.3%)
	Career Service	Community Representative		
N (%)	1(.9%)	2 (1.8%)		

Age

\bar{X} = 46-50 years

Sex

N (%) Female=92 (80.7%) Male= 22 (19.3%)

Years of Teaching Experience
(Teachers and Principals only)

\bar{X} = 17-20 years

Membership in LSC

% Yes 61.5%

Education

\bar{X} = BA with additional hours

Principal years of experience

\bar{X} = 4.4 years

Previous Experience in Planning

% Yes 89%

Familiar with terms "shared decision-making" or "participative management"

% Yes 92.4%

Attended workshops on shared decision-making

N (%)	A little	Somewhat	A great deal	Extensively
Not at all				
42 (39.6%)	21(19.8%)	23 (21.7%)	16 (15.1%)	4(3.8%)

Mean=1.2 (A Little)

Table 3. Descriptive Data from the School Planning Questionnaire (overall sample).
(continued)

N=114 (Percentages are rounded values and adjusted for missing responses)

Attended workshops on mathematics

N (%)

Not at all	A little	Somewhat	A great deal	Extensively
25(23.8%)	20(19.1%)	31 (29.5%)	23 (21.9%)	6(5.7%)
Mean=1.7 (Somewhat)				

Attended workshops on reading

N (%)

Not at all	A little	Somewhat	A great deal	Extensively
15(14.7%)	9(8.8%)	32 (31.4%)	34 (33.3%)	12(11.8%)
Mean=2.2 (Somewhat)				

Perusal of these data indicates that the majority of the respondents were teachers. Participants were experienced in school planning with a majority holding membership on the local school council (LSC). The respondents to this survey had "a little" training in shared decision-making, and a majority were familiar with the terminology. Those completing the questionnaire also reported being "somewhat" trained in the areas of mathematics and reading.

DESCRIPTION OF THE PLANNING TEAMS

The mean size of the school planning team for these objectives was 7.6. Membership on these teams typically included the principal, the assistant principal, 4 teachers, and a parent. As seen from the overall data, career service personnel and community representatives were also included in some team configurations. The team configurations for each school were examined, grouping assistant principals and principals as administrators, teachers and counselors, and career service personnel as teachers, and

parents and community representatives as parents. When the mean percentage of team membership was computed for each of the participating schools, four team configurations emerged. These were as follows: the "Parent Group" - was defined as a team, where the majority membership of the team consisted of at least 50% parents; the "Teacher Group" - was defined as a team, where the majority of the membership of the team consisted of at least 50% teachers; the "Administrator-Teacher Group" was defined as a team where 50% of the membership was constituted by teachers and administrators; and the "Administrator-Teacher-Parent Group" - where membership consisted of 50% teachers with the remaining 50% divided between parents and administrators.

Chi-square analysis was performed to determine significant differences between the respondents on descriptive variables. Key descriptive variables did vary by position. Significant differences between the positions, as determined by chi-square analysis, existed for the variables of age, sex, local school council (LSC) membership, education, years of experience at the school (school staff only), and whether or not team members were planning in areas where they had experience. The findings for differences by each variable follow.

The analysis of position of the respondents by age revealed that assistant principals were the oldest, followed by principals and teachers. Career service, community representatives, and parents tended to be younger. The responses for the majority of the participants by position were: assistant principals (51-60 years), principals (46-50 years), teachers (41-50 years), career service personnel (36-40 years), community representatives (31-40 years), and parents (36-40 years). The chi-square value was 72.9, $p < .012$.

The analysis of position of the respondents by sex indicated that the majority of the principals were male, while the majority of the remaining team members were female. The chi-square value was 23.9, $p < .001$.

Differences in education by position were as follows: principals tended to have hours past a Master's degree; the majority of teachers and assistant principals had Master's degrees, the plurality of the parents had high school diplomas, and the community representatives and career service personnel had Bachelor's degrees. The chi-square value was 123.86, $p < .000$.

The respondents also differed significantly by their years of experience at the school. (This item applied to school personnel only). Principals typically indicated experience of 5-8 years; assistant principals reported 21-24 years; teachers marked 25-28 years of experience; and career service personnel reported 1-4 years of experience. The chi-square value was 52.24, $p < .013$.

Examination of position of the respondents by local school council (LSC) membership indicated that all principals were members of the LSC; the majority of the assistant principals, teachers, and career service personnel were not members; and the majority of the parents and community representatives were members of the LSC. The chi-square value was 34.2, $p < .000$.

Analysis of the match between planning area and experience in that area indicated that the match existed for the teacher, assistant principal, and principal respondents, but did not exist for the majority of the parent, career service personnel, and community representative respondents. The chi-square value was 81.8, $p < .000$.

Examination of the breakdown by position on familiarity with the terms shared decision-making or participative management revealed that administrators and teachers were much more familiar with these terms than parents (administrators: 100%, teachers: 95.7%, and parents: 68.8%). The chi-square value was 16.7, $p < .002$.

Differences in training by position-type were significant for the areas of reading and mathematics, but non-significant for training in shared decision-making. Findings were as

follows. For mathematics, administrators and teachers fell in the "somewhat" range, while parents fell in the "not at all" range ($\chi^2=28.008, p<.001$). In the area of reading, administrators fell in the "a great deal of training" range, while teachers responses were in the "somewhat" range and parents fell in the "not at all" range ($\chi^2=54.5, p<.000$).

PARTICIPATION IN SCHOOL PLANNING

The data in the preceding section indicated that differences existed between the respondents based on position. The second research question examined the planning process. Items on the questionnaire focused on planning areas, stages of decision-making and forms of participation. This section examines the following questions and hypotheses:

- b) What role do these individuals play in the decisional process? What role do these individuals wish to play?

The null hypotheses for this segment of the study are:

H_{01} =There is no difference between the amount persons want to participate and the amount that they do participate.

H_{02} =There is no difference in the amount they participate based on position.

H_{03} =There is no difference in the amount they participate based on training rating (reading and mathematics objectives only).

H_{04} =There is no difference in the amount they wish to participate based on position.

H_{05} =There is no difference in the amount they wish to participate based on training rating (reading and mathematics objectives only).

AREAS OF PLANNING AND PARTICIPATION LEVELS

Items 14, 15, and 16 of the planning questionnaire listed seventeen planning areas. The planning areas included the four focus areas of the study: reading achievement, mathematics achievement, student attendance, and teacher attendance with the addition of planning for general instructional issues, school climate issues, school management issues, and staff development. The respondents to the survey were to review the list and indicate the extent to which they participated in planning versus the extent they wished to participate in planning utilizing a six-point model: make the decision alone, recommend decisions, suggest possible alternatives, gather or provide information, make the decision as part of the group, and do not participate.

Examination of the data overall by frequency of responses revealed that the majority of the respondents made decisions as a part of a group and preferred this method. Exceptions were in the areas of allocation of school staff and evaluation of school personnel, where the plurality of the respondents indicated that they had not participated in the decision-making process. These areas are traditionally the responsibility of administrators. Discrepancies were not surprising, since the majority of the participants were teachers. Significance tests and closer analysis of the discrepancies, however, indicated greater differences in the areas of planning.

Since these data were nominal in nature, chi-square analyses were utilized to determine if significant differences existed between the extent persons participated in decision-making and the extent they wished to participate. Significant differences between the extent respondents participated and the extent they wanted to participate were evident in twelve of the seventeen planning areas. The areas with significant chi square values are presented in table 4 below.

Table 4. Significant Discrepancies Between the Extent Persons Participated in School Planning and the Extent They Wanted to Participate.

<u>AREA</u>	<u>CHI-SQUARE VALUE</u>	<u>SIGNIFICANCE</u>
Teacher attendance	104.9	.000
School budget	118.8	.000
Textbook selection	86.9	.000
Student discipline	165.1	.000
Allocation of staff	104.8	.000
Determining instructional methods	127.3	.000
Determining format of reports	51.0	.000
Staff development	134.5	.000
Determining staff roles and responsibilities	85.4	.000
School climate	159.1	.000
School beautification	83.7	.000
Teacher schedules	53.6	.000

Examination of this list reveals that many of the areas noted as significant included areas of planning where decisions were traditionally made by administrators (allocation of staff, school budget, determining format of school reports, determining staff roles and responsibilities, teacher schedules, teacher attendance, staff development, school climate and school beautification and maintenance). Areas traditionally a focus for teachers included: determining instructional methods, textbook selection, staff development, school beautification and maintenance, and school climate. Results of the chi-square analyses supported the rejection of the first null hypothesis. Hence, $H_0 = \text{There is no difference}$

between the amount that persons want to participate and the amount that they do participate was rejected for the areas of teacher attendance, school budget, textbook selection, student discipline, allocation of staff, determining instructional methods, determining the format of reports, staff development, determining staff roles and responsibilities, school climate, school beautification, and teacher schedules. A secondary analysis focused on the types of decisional participation where discrepancies existed. The percentage of respondents who answered in each category and the degree of discrepancy are cited. Each area is summarized in table 5 below.

Table 5. Analysis of Planning Discrepancies by Decision Types

Planning for Improvement of Teacher Attendance

Decision Type	Extent Participated vs Extent Wanted to Participate Discrepancy		
	(P)	(W)	W-P
1. Make the decision alone	3.5%	P> 0.0% W	-3.5%
2. Recommend decisions	7.0%	P< 8.8% W	+1.8%
3. Suggest possible alternatives	8.8%	P> 7.0% W	-1.8%
4. Gather or provide information	1.8%	P> 0.0% W	-1.8%
5. Make the decision as part of the group	64.9%	P< 71.9% W	+7.0%
6. Do not participate	14.0%	P> 12.3% W	-1.7%

Trend: The majority of the respondents make this decision as a part of a group. More respondents would like to make this decision as part of a group. Currently a small percentage make the decision alone, but the respondents would not like to make the decision alone. Few respondents gather or provide information, and no respondents desired to gather or

provide information. A moderate percentage of people do not participate in this area, and a nearly equal number do not wish to participate.

Largest discrepancy: More respondents would like to make this decision as a part of a group.

School Budget

Decision Type	Extent Participated vs Extent Wanted to Participate		Discrepancy
	(P)	(W)	
1. Make the decision alone	0.0%	0.0% W	0%
2. Recommend decisions	15.8%	17.5% W	+1.7%
3. Suggest possible alternatives	14.0%	10.5% W	-3.5%
4. Gather or provide information	5.2%	10.5% W	+5.3%
5. Make the decision as part of the group	56.1%	54.4% W	-1.7%
6. Do not participate	8.8%	7.0% W	-1.8%

Trend: Respondents indicated that they did not make this decision alone. Persons answering this item indicated that they did not wish to make the decision alone. The majority of the participants make the decision as a part of a group, yet a small percentage would like to be excused from this decision. Recommending decisions and suggesting alternatives were also popular means of participation on this item. Slightly more people would like to recommend decisions, slightly fewer would like to suggest alternatives.

Largest discrepancy: More respondents would like to gather or provide information.

Textbook and/or Instructional Materials Selection

Decision Type	Extent Participated vs Extent Wanted to Participate		Discrepancy
	(P)	(W)	
1. Make the decision alone	0.0%	P=0.0% W	0%
2. Recommend decisions	20.9%	P < 23.9% W	+3.0%
3. Suggest possible alternatives	7.5%	P > 6.0% W	-1.5%
4. Gather or provide information	6.0%	P > 4.5% W	-1.5%
5. Make the decision as part of the group	59.7%	P < 64.2% W	+4.5%
6. Do not participate	6.0%	P > 1.5% W	-4.5%

Trend: None of the respondents indicated that they made this decision alone. None of the survey participants indicated that they would like to make this decision alone. The largest percentage made this decision as a part of the group, yet slightly more respondents indicated that they had not participated as a group, but would like this format. Nearly one-fifth recommend decisions, but close to one-fourth would like participation in this form.

Largest discrepancy: More respondents would like to make this decision as a part of the group.

Student Discipline Issues

Decision Type	Extent Participated vs Extent Wanted to Participate		Discrepancy
	(P)	(W)	
1. Make the decision alone	1.7%	P > 0.0% W	-1.7%
2. Recommend decisions	25.0%	P = 25.0% W	0%
3. Suggest possible alternatives	8.3%	P > 6.7% W	-1.6%
4. Gather or provide information	3.3%	P > 1.7% W	-1.6%
5. Make the decision as part of the group	60.0%	P < 65.0% W	+5.0%
6. Do not participate	1.7%	P = 1.7% W	0%

Trend: More respondents would like to make this decision as a part of the group than is currently evidenced. Nearly one-quarter would like to recommend decisions, and this is equal to the level persons wanted. A small percentage make the decision alone, but do not wish this responsibility. A few people indicated that they did not participate in this area and these persons were satisfied with the non-participation role.

Largest discrepancy: More respondents would like to make this decision as a part of the group.

Allocation of Teachers or Other School Staff

Decision Type	Extent Participated vs Extent Wanted to Participate		Discrepancy
	(P)	(W)	
1. Make the decision alone	5.8%	P = 5.8% W	0%
2. Recommend decisions	21.2%	P > 19.2% W	-2.0%
3. Suggest possible alternatives	9.6%	P < 13.5% W	+3.9%
4. Gather or provide information	0.0%	P = 0.0% W	0%
5. Make the decision as part of the group	26.9%	P < 42.3% W	+15.4%
6. Do not participate	36.5%	P > 19.2% W	-17.3%

Trend: The plurality of the respondents do not participate in decision-making in this area, and nearly one-fifth did not wish to participate in this area of decision-making. A larger percentage than cited in most other areas, 6%, make the decision alone. This equaled the number of persons who desired this form of participation. None of the participants gathered or provided information for decision-making in this area, and these respondents were satisfied with this role.

Largest discrepancy: More respondents would like to make this decision as a part of the group.

Determining the Instructional Methods to be Used with the Students

Decision Type	Extent Participated vs Extent Wanted to Participate		Discrepancy
	(P)	(W)	
1. Make the decision alone	12.1%	P < 19.0% W	+6.9%
2. Recommend decisions	15.5%	P > 6.9% W	-8.6%
3. Suggest possible alternatives	12.1%	P < 13.8% W	+1.7%
4. Gather or provide information	17.2%	P > 8.6% W	-8.6%
5. Make the decision as part of the group	36.2%	P < 48.3% W	+12.1%
6. Do not participate	8.6%	P > 3.4% W	-5.2%

Trend: A greater percentage of the respondents would like to make this decision alone than was evidenced in other areas, while nearly one-tenth currently make the decision alone. Greater participation in the form of recommending decisions, gathering or providing information was also evidenced. Greater shared decision-making was also preferred. Overall, participants indicated that they do not participate in this area as much as they would like.

Largest discrepancy: More respondents would like to make this decision as a part of the group.

Determining the Format for School Reports on Student Progress

Decision Type	Extent Participated vs Extent Wanted to Participate		Discrepancy
	(P)	(W)	
1. Make the decision alone	4.0%	P > 0.0% W	-4.0%
2. Recommend decisions	8.0%	P < 14.0% W	+6.0%
3. Suggest possible alternatives	16.0%	P = 16.0% W	0%
4. Gather or provide information	0.0%	P = 0.0% W	0%
5. Make the decision as part of the group	40.0%	P < 58.0% W	+18.0%
6. Do not participate	32.0%	P > 12.0% W	-20.0%

Trend: The plurality of the respondents make this decision as a part of a group. More would like to participate in this fashion. Nearly one-third of the respondents indicated that they do not participate in this area. None of those answering the survey participated in the form of gathering or providing information and no one wished to participate in this fashion. Suggesting possible alternatives was a method of participation employed by 16% of the respondents, and this was equal to the number who wished to participate in this fashion. A small percentage would also like to participate in the form of recommending possible decisions. No one wished to make the decisions alone.

Largest discrepancy: More respondents would like to make this decision as a part of the group.

Determining Staff Development

Decision Type	Extent Participated vs Extent Wanted to Participate		Discrepancy
	(P)	(W)	
1. Make the decision alone	1.6%	P > 0.0% W	-1.6%
2. Recommend decisions	17.2%	P > 10.9% W	-6.3%
3. Suggest possible alternatives	14.1%	P > 7.8% W	-6.3%
4. Gather or provide information	6.2%	P = 6.2% W	0%
5. Make the decision as part of the group	59.4%	P < 70.3% W	+10.9%
6. Do not participate	1.6%	P < 4.7% W	+3.1%

Trend: Respondents would like to make this decision as a part of the group and more people indicated a preference for this form of participation than is currently evidenced. A small percentage would also like to participate in the form of suggesting possible alternatives or recommending decisions. No one wished to make this decision alone. A somewhat greater number do not wish to participate in this area than is currently evidenced. This is a small percentage, however.

Largest discrepancy: More respondents would like to make this decision as a part of the group.

Determining the Roles and Responsibilities for Staff

Decision Type	Extent Participated vs Extent Wanted to Participate		Discrepancy
	(P)	(W)	
1. Make the decision alone	3.7%	P > 0.0% W	-3.7%
2. Recommend decisions	14.8%	P < 16.7% W	+1.9%
3. Suggest possible alternatives	7.4%	P > 1.8% W	-5.6%
4. Gather or provide information	7.4 P %	> 5.6% W	-1.8%
5. Make the decision as part of the group	46.3%	P < 64.8% W	+18.5%
6. Do not participate	20.4%	P > 11.1% W	-9.3%

Trend: The plurality of the respondents indicated that they make this decision as a part of the group. An even greater percentage of respondents, however, indicated that they this was the form of decision-making desired for this area. More people participate in the form of making the decision alone or suggesting possible alternatives than they would prefer.

Largest discrepancy: More respondents would like to make this decision as a part of the group.

Planning for the Improvement of School Climate

Decision Type	Extent Participated vs Extent Wanted to Participate	Discrepancy
	(P)	(W) W-P
1. Make the decision alone	1.5% P > 0.0% W	-1.5%
2. Recommend decisions	10.8% P > 6.2% W	-4.6%
3. Suggest possible alternatives	9.2% P > 6.2% W	-3.1%
4. Gather or provide information	4.6% P = 4.6% W	0%
5. Make the decision as part of the group	69.2% P < 80.0% W	+10.8%
6. Do not participate	4.6% P > 3.1% W	-1.5%

Trend: The majority of the respondents make this decision as a part of the group. An even larger percentage desire this form of decision-making for this area. More people participate in the form of recommending decisions or suggesting possible alternatives than would like. No one wished to make this decision alone.

Largest discrepancy: More respondents would like to make this decision as a part of the group.

Planning for School Beautification or Maintenance

Decision Type	Extent Participated vs Extent Wanted to Participate	Discrepancy
	(P)	(W) W-P
1. Make the decision alone	1.6% P > 0.0% W	-1.6%
2. Recommend decisions	4.9% P = 4.9 % W	0%
3. Suggest possible alternatives	6.6% P > 4.9% W	-1.7%
4. Gather or provide information	6.6% P > 3.3% W	-3.3%
5. Make the decision as part of the group	65.6% P < 82.0% W	+16.4%
6. Do not participate	14.8% P > 4.9% W	-9.9%

Trend: The majority of the respondents made this decision as a part of the group. An even larger percentage wished to participate in this manner. Small percentages of respondents made these decisions alone. No one wished to make these decisions alone. More individuals participate in decision-making in this area than currently wish to participate.

Largest discrepancy: More respondents would like to make this decision as a part of the group.

Establishing Teaching Schedules

Decision Type	Extent Participated vs Extent Wanted to Participate		Discrepancy
	(P)	(W)	
1. Make the decision alone	5.3% P	5.3% W	0%
2. Recommend decisions	31.6% P	21.0% W	-10.5%
3. Suggest possible alternatives	7.9% P	10.5% W	+2.6%
4. Gather or provide information	5.3% P	0.0% W	-5.3%
5. Make the decision as part of the group	36.8% P	55.3% W	+18.4%
6. Do not participate	13.2% P	7.9% W	-5.3%

Trend: Nearly equal percentages of respondents recommend decisions and make the decision as a part of the group. A majority of the people indicated that they would prefer making the decision as a part of the group. More people participate in the form of recommending decisions or gathering information than would like.

Largest discrepancy: More respondents would like to make this decision as a part of the group.

The results from this analysis with regard to the issue of greater participation in shared decision-making are summarized in figure 12 below. (Refer to figure 12).

Examination of this graph reveals that respondents would like slightly less participation in decisions regarding budget and greater participation in the areas of determining staff roles, establishing teacher schedules, and determining the formats for school reports (18% discrepancy or above).

Figures 13 through 18 below illustrate the form of decisional participation by area for

each of the planning areas on the survey. (Refer to figures 13-18).

Examination of these graphs elucidates the association of the type of decisional participation with the area of participation. Figure 13 demonstrates that the respondents did not make decisions alone in the areas of budget and text selection. Participants in the study did not wish to make decisions alone in the areas of teacher attendance, budget, text selection, discipline, school report format, staff development, roles of staff, school climate, and school beautification. The areas where the largest percentage of participants made the decisions alone were: evaluation of staff and determining the instructional methods to be used with students. These were also the areas where the plurality of respondents wished to make decisions alone, (19%, methods of instruction, 7.7%, evaluation of staff). Overall, the smallest percentage of respondents indicated that they made decisions alone (mean 4.5%) and an even smaller percentage (mean 2.4%) indicated that they wanted to make decisions alone.

The second method of participation, recommending decisions, is illustrated in figure 14. Few people participated in this manner for the area of school beautification, 4.9%. This was equal to the percent who wished to participate in this manner. The highest percentage of respondents indicating that this was their method of participation, 31.6%, was for the area of establishing teaching schedules. One-fourth of the participants indicated that this was the method of participation for the area of student discipline. This was equal to the number that preferred this form of participation. Overall, this was the second most popular form of participation (mean 15.3%), while an even smaller percentage (mean 13.9%) indicated that they wanted to recommend decisions.

Figure 15 illustrates that a very small percentage suggest possible alternatives in the evaluation of staff, 1.9%. A slightly greater number, 3.8%, would like to suggest alternatives in this area. A small percent, 1.8%, wish to participate in this manner for the

area of determining the roles and responsibilities of staff. The highest percentage, 16.0% of the respondents, indicated this as the preferred method for the area of determining the format for school reports on student progress. Overall, the mean participation in this form was 9.6%. The mean percent of respondents indicating that this was their preferred form of participation was 8.0%.

Figure 16 indicated that none of the respondents gathered or provided information for the areas of determining the format for school reports on student progress and allocation of teachers or other school staff. The highest percentage of respondents who participated in this fashion, 17.2%, did so in the area of determining the instructional methods to be used with students. Respondents indicated that they did not wish to gather or provide information in the areas of planning for the improvement of teacher attendance, allocation of teachers or other school staff, determining the format for school reports on student progress, and establishing teaching schedules. Less than 11% of the respondents selected this form of participation overall. The mean participation level, overall, for gathering or providing information was 6.2%, while this form of participation was desired by 3.4%.

The most popular form of participation was making the decision as part of the group (figure 17). This was also the most desired form of participation. Overall, 51.2% of the respondents indicated that this was the method employed and 63.8% desired this method. The areas where the fewest persons indicated that they made the decision as a part of the group were evaluation of school personnel, 25%, and allocation of teachers and other staff, 26.9%. The areas where this was most prevalent, more than 60% of the respondents indicating this method, were: planning for the improvement of student attendance, planning for the improvement of teacher attendance, planning for the improvement of school climate, and planning for school beautification or maintenance. The areas where this form of

participation was desired by the fewest number of the respondents were: allocation of teachers and other staff, evaluation of school personnel, and determining the instructional methods to be used with students (42.3%, 43.2%, and 48.3%, respectively). The areas where over 60% of the respondents desired this method were: planning for the improvement of reading, planning for the improvement of mathematics, planning for the improvement of student attendance, planning for the improvement of teacher attendance, textbook and materials selection, student discipline issues, determining the instructional objectives for the students at this site, determining staff development programs, planning for the improvement of school climate, and planning for school beautification or maintenance.

Areas where the participants indicated that they did not participate and did not want to participate are illustrated in figure 18. Overall, 13.4% indicated that they did not participate, and 7.9% indicated that they did not wish to participate. Areas where over 30% of the respondents indicated that they did not participate included: evaluation of school personnel, allocation of teachers and other staff, and determining the format for school reports on student progress. Areas where less than 2% indicated that they did not participate included: determining staff development programs and student discipline issues. More people wished to participate in all areas, with the exception of the areas of: staff development, student discipline, and determining the instructional objectives for the students at this site. The greatest number of respondents did not wish to participate in the areas of: evaluation of school personnel, allocation of teachers and other staff, determining the format for school reports on student progress and determining the roles and responsibilities of staff.

Areas were also analyzed by the overall degree of discrepancy between the way they participated and the method in which they wanted to participate. These data are illustrated

in figure 19. (Refer to figure 19).

Examination of figure 19 reveals that the smallest discrepancies overall, were for the area of student discipline, 9.9%, while there was a discrepancy of over 40% for the areas: determining the roles and responsibilities for staff, establishing teaching schedules, determining the instructional methods to be used with the students, and determining the format for school reports on student progress. The largest contributing factor to this trend was the desire for more decision-making as a group.

ANALYSIS OF PLANNING AREAS BY POSITION

The second and fourth null hypotheses focused on whether or not differences in the extent that persons participate in planning or would like to participate in planning varied by position of the respondent. Positions were grouped into the headings of administration (principal and assistant principal), teacher (teachers and counselors), and parents (parents and community representatives) and career service for the chi-square analyses.

The planning areas where participation and desire to participate varied significantly by position are highlighted in table 6.

Table 6. Significant Differences by Position for the Extent Persons Participated in School Planning and the Extent They Wanted to Participate.

Area Participated	Chi-Square Value	Sig.	Area Wanted to Participate	Chi Square	Sig.
1. Reading		No	1. Reading		No
2. Mathematics		No	2. Mathematics		No
3. Student Attendance	18.990	.04	3. Student Attendance		No
4. Teacher Attendance	29.093	.001	4. Teacher Attendance		No
5. Budget		No	5. Budget		No
6. Texts and Materials	23.836	.008	6. Texts and Materials	21.6	.006
7. Discipline	19.361	.04	7. Discipline	17.4	.03
8. Allocation of Staff	42.007	.000	8. Allocation of Staff	23.7	.02
9. Instructional Methods		No	9. Instructional Methods	32.5	.001
10. Instructional Objectives	24.071	.007	10. Instructional Objectives	19.3	.04
11. School Reports		No	11. School Reports	12.5	.05
12. Staff Development		No	12. Staff Development	38.3	.000
13. Roles of Staff		No	13. Roles of Staff		No
14. School Climate		No	14. School Climate		No
15. School Beautification	34.462	.003	15. School Beautification	35.4	.002
16. Teaching Schedules	40.349	.002	16. Teaching Schedules		No
17. Evaluate Personnel	36.973	.000	17. Evaluate Personnel		No

Examination of this list reveals that differences by position in the form of decisional participation existed in 9 of the 17 areas under study. Differences in the desire to participate in different forms existed in 8 of the areas. Comparing the areas of significant difference by position, the following planning areas emerged as being significantly different between the positions in the method of participation, but not in the method of desired participation: planning for the improvement of student attendance, planning for the improvement of teacher attendance, and planning for the evaluation of personnel. Areas emerging as significantly different in the desired method of participation, but not in the current method of participation included: instructional methods, school reports on student progress, and staff development.

ANALYSIS OF THE EXTENT RESPONDENTS PARTICIPATED IN THE PLANNING AREAS BY POSITION

Table 7 illustrates the position analysis by planning area for the extent respondents participated. Examination of this table reveals the following trends by position. (Refer to table 7).

1. Decisions Made Alone

Administrators: The plurality, 47.6%, make decisions regarding the evaluation of school personnel alone. None of the administrators make decisions regarding the school budget or textbook and instructional materials selection alone.

Teachers: None of the teachers make decisions alone in the areas of improvement of reading achievement, improvement of mathematics achievement, improvement of student attendance, improvement of teacher attendance, school budget, student discipline issues, allocation of teachers and other school staff, determining the format for school reports on student progress, determining staff development programs, determining the roles and responsibilities for staff, planning for the improvement of school climate, planning for school beautification or maintenance, and evaluation of school personnel. The largest percentage, 13.3%, made decisions alone in the area of determining the instructional methods to be used with students.

Parents: None of the parents made decisions alone.

2. Recommended Decisions

Administrators: None of the administrators recommended decisions in the area of planning for school beautification. The largest percentages of respondents, 35% and

31.6%, respectively, used this approach in the allocation of teachers or other school staff and in establishing teacher schedules.

Teachers: None of the teachers recommended decisions in the area of planning for the improvement of reading. The largest percentages, 34.9%, 31.9%, and 30.4%, used this method in planning for areas of student discipline, determining the instructional objectives for the students at the site, and staff development.

Parents: The only areas where parents recommended decisions were: planning for the improvement of reading achievement, student discipline issues, and allocation of teachers and other staff, 16.1%, 14.3%, and 16.7%, respectively.

3. Suggested Possible Alternatives

Administrators: None of the administrators used this approach for allocation of teachers or other school staff, establishing teacher schedules and the evaluation of school personnel. A little over 10% used this method for determining the instructional methods to be used with the students and determining staff development programs.

Teachers: Less than 5% of the teachers used this approach in planning for school beautification or maintenance and the evaluation of school personnel. The highest percentage of respondents to this item, approximately 16%, suggested possible alternatives for the areas of: planning for the improvement of mathematics achievement, school budget issues and determining the format for school reports on student progress.

Parents: Parents used this approach in the planning for the improvement of reading achievement, planning for the improvement of mathematics achievement, planning for the improvement of student attendance, school budget, student discipline issues, determining the instructional methods to be used with students, determining staff development programs and determining the format for school reports on student progress. The plurality

of respondents in this category, 33.3%, used this approach in determining the format for school reports on student progress.

4. Gather or Provide Information

Administrators: Administrators used this approach for the following areas: school budget, determining instructional methods to be used with students, determining staff development programs, determining the roles and responsibilities of staff, establishing teaching schedules, and planning for school beautification or maintenance. The highest percentage of respondents to this item, 10.5%, gathered or provided information for the issue of determining the instructional objectives for the students at the site.

Teachers: Teachers did not use this approach in three areas, planning for the improvement of teacher attendance, allocation of teachers and other school staff, and determining the format for school reports on student progress. About 16%, gathered or provided information in planning for the improvement of reading achievement.

Parents: Parents did not perform this function in six areas: school budget, establishing teaching schedules, student discipline issues, allocation of teachers or other school staff, determining staff development programs, and determining the format for school reports on student progress. The plurality of the parents, 37.5%, used this method in determining the instructional methods to be used with the students.

5. Making the Decision as Part of the Group

Administrators: Over 50% of the administrators used this approach in all areas with the exception of the evaluation of school personnel (38.1%), and the allocation of teachers and other school staff (45.0%). Nearly 80% used this approach in three areas: student discipline issues, planning for school beautification or maintenance, and planning for the improvement of school climate.

Teachers: In most cases, this was the preferred method for teachers as well.

Exceptions were in the areas of evaluation of school personnel (10.3%), allocation of teachers or other school staff (13.3%), and determining the instructional methods to be used with students (26.7%). Over 60% of the respondents used this approach in planning for the improvement of teacher and student attendance.

Parents: This was also the predominate method of parent involvement. Exceptions included the area of establishing teaching schedules (0%), determining the format for school reports on student progress (16.7%), and planning for the improvement of teacher attendance (20.0%). Areas where over 70% used this approach included, determining staff development programs, planning for school beautification or maintenance, and school budget issues.

6. Do not Participate

Administrators: There were very few areas where administrators did not participate, and even those highlighted were noted by 10% or less. Those highlighted by nearly 10% included: evaluation of school personnel (assistant principals), planning for the improvement of mathematics achievement, planning for the improvement of student attendance, and determining the format for school reports on student progress.

Teachers: Two areas were highlighted where this did not occur. They included: student discipline issues and determining the instructional objectives for the students at this site. Over 60% indicated that they did not participate in the areas of allocation of teachers or other school staff and the evaluation of school personnel.

Parents: School budget was one area highlighted where exclusion did not occur. A total of 60% of the parents indicated that they did not participate in planning for the improvement of teacher attendance, while 50% did not participate in the areas, allocation of teachers or other school staff, determining the format for school reports on student

progress, and evaluation of school personnel. Over 80% did not participate in establishing teaching schedules.

ANALYSIS OF THE EXTENT RESPONDENTS WANTED TO PARTICIPATE IN THE PLANNING AREAS BY POSITION

In terms of extent that persons wanted to participate in planning, the following was observed for administrators, teachers, and parents:

Table 8 illustrates the position analysis by planning area for the extent respondents wished to participate. The following trends are summarized by position. (Refer to table 8).

1. Decisions Made Alone

Administrators: There were only five areas where administrators indicated that they wished to make decisions alone: evaluation of school personnel (20%), allocation of teachers or other school staff (15%), establishing teaching schedules (7.1%), and planning for the improvement of reading and student attendance, nearly 5%.

Teachers: Teachers wished to make decisions alone in four areas, planning for the improvement of mathematics (2.6%), determining the instructional methods to be used with students (25.6%), determining the instructional objectives for students at this site (9.5%), and establishing teaching schedules (2.8%).

Parents: Parents cited one area where decisions would be made alone, determining the instructional methods to be used with students (5.3%).

2. Recommended Decisions

Administrators: None of the administrators wanted to participate by recommending decisions in the area of determining the instructional methods to be used with students. The largest percentages of respondents, 58.6%, 37.5%, and 35.7%,

respectively, wished to use this approach in determining the instructional objectives for the students, determining the roles and responsibilities for staff, and establishing teaching schedules.

Teachers: None of the teachers wanted participation in the form of recommending decisions in the areas of planning for the improvement of reading, mathematics, student attendance, teacher attendance, school budget, textbook and/or instructional materials selection, student discipline issues, and evaluation of school personnel. The largest percentage of the respondents, 30.2% and 36.1%, wished to participate in this manner for textbook and/or instructional materials selection, and student discipline issues.

Parents: The areas where parents wished to recommend decisions were: allocation of teachers or other school staff, determining the instructional methods to be used with students, determining the instructional objectives for the students at this site, determining the format for school reports on student progress, determining staff development programs, determining the roles and responsibilities for staff, planning for improvement of school climate, planning for school beautification or maintenance, and establishing teaching schedules. Nearly one quarter felt that this would be desirable for the areas of: determining the roles and responsibilities of staff and establishing teaching schedules.

3. Suggested Possible Alternatives

Administrators: None of the administrators wished to suggest possible alternatives in the areas of determining the instructional methods to be used with students, determining the roles and responsibilities for staff, and evaluation of school personnel. One quarter of the respondents felt that this method of involvement would be desired for the area of determining the format for school reports on student progress.

Teachers: Less than 5% of the teachers wanted to use this approach for determining the roles and responsibilities of staff, improvement of school climate, and planning for

school beautification or maintenance. The highest percentage of respondents to this item, approximately 15%, wanted to suggest possible alternatives for the areas of allocation of teachers and other staff and determining the instructional methods to be used with students.

Parents: Parents only wished to use this approach in the area of determining the instructional methods to be used with students.

4. Gather or Provide Information

Administrators: High percentages of administrators did not favor this approach. They selected it for six areas: school budget, determining the instructional objectives for students, staff development, roles and responsibilities for staff, improvement of school climate, and planning for school beautification or maintenance. The highest percentage, 12.5%, chose this method for staff development.

Teachers: Teachers did not wish to use this approach in four areas: teacher attendance, allocation of teachers or other school staff, determining the format for school reports on student progress, and establishing teaching schedules. About 12.8%, wished to gather or provide information for the area, determining the instructional methods to be used with students.

Parents: Parents wished to gather or provide information in two areas: school budget and textbook and/or instructional materials selection.

5. Making the Decision as Part of the Group

Administrators: Over 70% of the respondents wished to make the decision as a part of the group for the areas: planning for improvement of reading achievement, planning for improvement of mathematics achievement, planning for improvement of student attendance, improvement of teacher attendance, school budget, textbook and/or instructional materials selection, and student discipline issues. The smallest percentage, 35.7%, felt that this method should be used in the area establishing teaching schedules.

Teachers: Over 70% desired this form of decision making for the areas, student attendance, teacher attendance, staff development, improvement of school climate, school beautification or maintenance, and establishing teaching schedules. Approximately 35% of the respondents wished to make the decision as a part of the group for the areas: allocation of teachers or other school staff, determining the instructional methods to be used with the students, and evaluation of school personnel.

Parents: Nearly 90% of the parents wished to participate as a part of the group for the areas of improvement of: mathematics achievement and student attendance. Over 80% also preferred this method for the areas of planning for the improvement of school climate and determining the instructional objectives for the students at the site.

6. Do not Participate

Administrators: There were very few areas where administrators did not participate. The largest percentage, 33.4%, indicated this response for the area of determining the instructional methods to be used with students.

Teachers: A total of 41.9% indicated that they did not wish to participate in the area of the evaluation of school personnel. A total of 31.2% did not wish to participate in the allocation of teachers or other school staff.

Parents: A total of 50% of the parents indicated that they did not wish to participate in the area of teacher attendance. One third did not wish to participate in the evaluation of staff, and 30% did not wish to participate in the area of determining the format for school reports on student progress.

Since significant differences existed based on position, the second and fourth null hypotheses were rejected. H_{02} = There is no difference in the amount they participate based on position, was rejected for the areas of: student attendance, teacher attendance, textbook

and instructional materials selection, student discipline issues, allocation of teachers and other school staff, determining the instructional objectives for the students at the site, planning for school beautification, establishing teaching schedules and evaluating school personnel.

Ho4=There is no difference in the amount they wish to participate based on position, was rejected for the areas of: textbook and/or instructional materials selection, student discipline issues, allocation of teachers and other school staff, determining instructional methods to be used with students determining the format for school reports on student progress, determining staff development programs, and planning for school beautification or maintenance.

ANALYSIS OF PLANNING FOR READING AND MATHEMATICS BY DEGREE OF TRAINING

The two null hypotheses remaining in this portion of the study, H_{03} =There is no difference in the amount they participate based on training rating (reading and mathematics objectives only); and H_{05} =There is no difference in the amount they wish to participate based on training rating (reading and mathematics objectives only), were tested using chi-square analysis.

One area was found to be significant, the extent persons participated in planning for the improvement of mathematics achievement did vary by the degree of math training. The chi-square value was 42.09, $p < .003$.

Examination of the differences revealed that the persons with no training in mathematics, either did not participate (38.5%), made the decision as a part of the group (30.8%), or recommended decisions (15.4%).

A total of 7.6% had "very extensive" and 30.4% had a "a great deal" of training in this area. The majority of persons with "extensive" training, 66.7%, made the decision as a part of the group. An additional 16.7%, recommended decisions or suggested possible alternatives. Half of the persons with "a great deal" of training, made the decision as part of the group, while 25%, gathered or provided information, 16.7%, suggested possible alternatives, and 8.3%, recommended decisions.

The highest percentage of persons making the decision as a part of the group, 75%, had "some" training. Those with "some" training also participated by suggesting alternatives (15.0%) or making the decision alone (5.0%).

Half of those persons with "little" training made the decision as part of the group. An additional 31.2% recommended decisions. A total of 12.5% did not participate, and 6.2% made the decision alone.

In summary, those with "little" or "no" training made the decision as part of the group or did not participate for the most part. Those persons with "a great deal" or "extensive" training participated as part of the group, but also recommended decisions, suggested alternatives, and gathered information. None of those persons indicating they had "extensive" training made the decisions alone.

Ho3=There is no difference in the amount they participate based on training rating (reading and mathematics objectives only) was rejected for the area of mathematics.

Ho5=There is no difference in the amount they wish to participate based on training rating (reading and mathematics objectives only) was not rejected.

PARTICIPANT SELECTION FOR PLANNING ISSUES

RESULTS FROM INTERVIEWS

Questions relevant to participant determination were addressed in interviews with 45 individuals from each of the 15 schools. Those interviewed represented each position type: administrator, teacher and parent. The focus of the research questions in this portion of the study are:

- c) Which criteria seem to most strongly influence the degree of participation? How do perceptions differ on the criteria that should be used to determine participation? Is there a relationship between differing perceptions and position?

The null hypothesis for this segment of the study is:

H_{06} =There is no difference in selection criteria based on position.

Interview question one queried identified personnel on their basis for selecting participants for decision-making. Transcriptions from the interviews were compiled and responses were sorted and categorized for analysis. A list of 21 criteria were cited. These included: creativity, willingness to participate, ability and expertise, training in the area, organizational skills, incorporating many viewpoints on the team, interest, racial/gender mix, knowledge of the school, time constraints, good human relations skills, lack of bias, responsibility, personality, random selection, availability, literacy, citizenship, flexibility, and persons who were judged to be not disenfranchised. One principal viewed it as a developmental process. His goal was to get people to play a greater role in the decisional process.

This listing was coded and entered by school and position type. Chi-square analysis was performed to determine areas of significant difference by position. Four of the areas were highlighted as having significant differences by position.

Lack of bias appeared to be an important criteria for teachers. A total of 26.7% indicated this quality, while 6.7% of the parents highlighted it, and none of the administrators noted this aspect. The chi-square value was 5.8, $p < .05$.

Good human relations skills was also more important to teachers. A total of 33.3% of the teachers noted this, while 6.7% of the parents highlighted this quality. None of the administrators listed this factor. The chi-square value was 8.1, $p < .02$.

Responsibility was cited only by the teachers. The chi-square value was 6.4, $p < .04$. Parents selected the quality, knowledge of the school, more than any other position group. A total of 46.7% of the parents selected this aspect, while 13.3% of the teachers chose this quality, and 6.7% of the administrators cited this attribute. The chi-square value was 8.0, $p < .02$.

Hence, the sixth null hypothesis was rejected. H_06 = There is no difference in the selection criteria based on position was rejected for the criteria: lack of bias, good human relations skills, responsibility, and knowledge of the school.

Overall, principals highlighted ability, training, expertise, and willingness. One principal spoke of matching persons to committees: "It depends on the committee where the individuals are involved. For example: grade level committees should be composed of members of those grades. No parents would be involved on those committees if they know the children."

Teachers highlighted human relations skills, knowledge, experience on past committees, willingness to devote the time, involvement in the school, concern, and responsibility. As one teacher stated: "The people on the team should be people who are constructive, interested and are volunteers. They should have common sense, be unbiased and have good human relations."

Parents focused on interest in the school, knowledge, experience, commitment, and

willingness to participate. One parent stated: "They need a dedication to the principle involved. You don't need a background in education. You don't need degrees."

The second interview question explored this aspect in greater depth. It was stated as: "In matching decision-making to issues, what issues should parents address, teachers, etc.?"

Principals tended to focus on curriculum, instruction, textbooks and materials, school policy matters, and discipline as issues for teachers. A total of 87% of the principals cited curriculum as a major planning area for teachers. Eighty percent of the respondents also picked instruction, while nearly 50% selected discipline. Other areas cited included: interpersonal relations, parent involvement, improving student self-esteem, budget, student dress codes, and programming.

Opinions were more varied when it came to the role of parents in school planning. Nearly half of the principals surveyed indicated curriculum planning, discipline, and school budget and finances as areas for parent involvement. A total of 20% indicated that parents should be involved in all matters pertaining to them. Other areas cited for parents included: school climate, school profile, the arts, volunteer programs, policy, textbook selection, parent involvement programs, school-wide issues, the same issues as teachers, field trips, fun fairs, special projects and mini-programs. One principal indicated that he listened to the opinions of parents, but made up his own mind. Several principals indicated that parents should not be involved in personnel matters.

One principal stated: "Parents should be involved in any activities directly related to the parent, such as the educational program and curriculum matters such as fun fairs, field trips, special projects and mini courses. Teachers should be involved in determining the best educational programs for the school and how to develop self-esteem in children."

Teachers views on the involvement of teachers and parents in planning decisions

were as follows. The majority of teachers indicated that curriculum, technical aspects of teaching, academic areas and areas relevant to their subject should be the focus of planning for teachers. One-third of the respondents also indicated that teachers should make discipline decisions. Other areas that were cited included: testing, school climate, organization, working conditions, personnel usage, social needs, textbook selection, budget, and parent involvement. A total of 13.3% indicated that teachers should be involved in all aspects of the school with the exception of the evaluation of other teachers.

When discussing the role of parents, the plurality of the teachers indicated that parents should focus on the educational needs of their child. A total of 20% cited the areas of discipline and curriculum, while 13.3% highlighted, policy making and all areas of the school. Other responses included: dress code, building maintenance, attendance, education of parents, community issues, finance. Three areas were indicated by 6.7% of the teachers, where parents should not be involved in the decision-making. These included: personnel issues, hiring of teachers and principals, and curriculum. One teacher felt that parents should only serve in an advisory capacity and one teacher noted that parents need to have knowledge and interest in the area in which they are planning.

One teacher summarized the roles as follows: "Parents should deal in areas of responsibility for children--how to get along with other children and adults--communicating the idea of what is right and wrong is very important. They should deal with the issue of what is authority, the need for authority figures and why education is important. Teachers should be involved with curriculum making for various age groups, setting standards for schools, grading, the technical aspects of teaching and issues of discipline."

Parents views on this question focused exclusively on the role of parents. The plurality of the parents, 40%, indicated that they should be involved in all areas. One-third of the parent respondents cited discipline codes. Parents had differing opinions when it

came to the area of curriculum. A total of 20% felt that parents should plan in this area, while an additional 20% felt that there should be limited planning by parents in the area of curriculum. One parent stated that parents should have input into curriculum decisions, but not the final say. Approximately 13% of the parents cited the areas of policy committees, school improvement plans, budget, dress code, and school beautification and maintenance for planning with input by parents. Other areas cited included: needs assessment, school philosophy, extra-curricular activities, homework policy, non-classroom areas, anything affecting their children, and principal selection. One parent stated, "Parents should serve on as many planning teams as you can get them on." Some parents stipulated that they should not be involved in teacher reviews, discipline of individual students, or teacher selection. One parent indicated that parents need training to serve on planning committees.

One parent stated: "Parents should be involved in almost everything: curriculum, discipline, rules, and school improvement. Parents should not be involved in school personnel problems or where union rules are discussed."

INVOLVEMENT AND PERCEIVED INFLUENCE IN SHARED DECISION-MAKING

The varying views regarding who should be involved in planning by position have been explored. The next area of the study focused on how people were involved in the planning process and the description of that process. The questions include:

- d) To what degree does shared decision-making take place? Who participates? How often do they participate? Who controls the agenda? How much involvement is perceived? How much influence do persons perceive they have in the decisions? In how many stages

of decision-making are persons involved?

Null hypotheses for the issues of degree of involvement and influence are:

H_{O7}=There is no difference in the degree of involvement based on position.

H_{O8}=There is no difference in the degree of involvement based on training rating
(mathematics and reading objectives only).

H_{O9}=There is no difference in the degree of influence based on position.

H_{O10}=There is no difference in the degree of influence based on training rating
(mathematics and reading only).

Question two from the section on analysis of planning in four areas of the School Planning Questionnaire, summarized the frequency of participation in the planning areas for each participant type. The means and standard deviations are presented in table 9 below.

Table 9. Frequency of Participation by Position in the Four Planning Areas.

N=114

<u>Area</u>	<u>Position</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>Descriptor</u>
Reading	Principal	2.66	.65	Usually- <u>Always</u>
	Teachers	2.60	.62	Usually- <u>Always</u>
	Parents	1.60	.93	Seldom- <u>Usually</u>
	Career Service	.93	1.0	Never- <u>Seldom</u>
	Community Rep.	1.41	1.0	<u>Seldom</u> -Usually
Mathematics	Principal	2.54	.83	Usually- <u>Always</u>
	Teachers	2.50	.79	<u>Usually</u> -Always
	Parents	1.46	1.0	Seldom- <u>Usually</u>
	Career Service	.95	1.1	Never- <u>Seldom</u>
	Community Rep.	1.25	1.0	<u>Seldom</u> -Usually

Table 9. Frequency of Participation by Position in the Four Planning Areas.

N=114

<u>Area</u>	<u>Position</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>Descriptor</u>
Student Attendance	Principal	2.76	.61	Usually- <u>Always</u>
	Teachers	2.64	.66	Usually- <u>Always</u>
	Parents	2.04	.86	<u>Usually</u> -Always
	Career Service	1.32	.15	<u>Seldom</u> -Usually
	Community Rep.	1.46	1.0	Seldom- <u>Usually</u>
Teacher Attendance	Principal	2.77	.66	Usually- <u>Always</u>
	Teachers	2.52	.78	<u>Usually</u> -Always
	Parents	1.43	.98	<u>Seldom</u> -Usually
	Career Service	.87	.99	Never- <u>Seldom</u>
	Community Rep.	.87	.98	Never- <u>Seldom</u>

Examination of these data revealed that the greatest involvement by position was in the area of student attendance. The one exception was in the case of principals, who were most involved in teacher attendance planning.

Principals, "usually to always" participated in planning. Means fell closer to the "usually" range for the area of mathematics, and closer to the "always" range for all other areas.

Teachers were the next most frequent participants in school planning. Their participation means also fell in the "usually to always" range. Slightly more frequent participation was noted in the areas of student attendance and reading, than in the areas of mathematics and teacher attendance.

Parents participated less frequently than principals or teachers. Their participation level fell in the "seldom to usually" range. Participation by parents was most frequently noted in the area of student attendance, where means centered around the "usually" range.

Parent participation occurred least frequently in the area of teacher attendance, where mean participation was in the "seldom" range.

Community representatives participated in the "seldom to usually" range.

Participation occurred seldomly in the areas of teacher attendance and mathematics. It occurred closer to the "usually" range in the areas of student attendance and reading.

Career service personnel participated the least in planning. Participation for all areas fell in the "seldom" range. The area of greatest participation was also student attendance issues.

Chi-square analyses were performed to determine if perceptions regarding participation varied significantly by position. Three areas were found to be significant. Two involved the participation of career service personnel, and the third area of significance focused on the participation of teachers.

In the case of career service participation in the area of planning for the improvement of mathematics achievement, parents perceived that career service personnel participated "seldom to usually," while the majority of teachers felt that they never participated, and administrators indicated that they "never-seldomly" participated. The chi-square value was 16.462, $p < .01$.

In the area of career service participation in planning for the improvement of teacher attendance, the plurality of the parents (42.9%), perceived that career service personnel either "never" or "usually" participated, while the majority of teachers felt that they "never" participated and administrators indicated that they "seldom" participated. The chi-square value was 17.646, $p < .007$.

In viewing teacher participation in the planning for the improvement of teacher attendance, the majority of the parents, 67.8%, indicated that teachers usually participated. The majority of the teachers, 77.8%, felt that they always participated. A total of 46.7% of

the administrators indicated that they always participated, while 40.0% of the administrators reported that they usually participated. The chi-square value was 18.127, $p < .006$.

The low representation of career service personnel in the survey could account for differing views on their participation level. Since parents were seldom participants in the planning for improvement of teacher attendance, their perceptions regarding this area, might differ from those of administrators and teachers.

PLANNING AGENDAS AND SCHEDULING OF PLANNING

The plurality, (43.6%) of the respondents to the item regarding who usually set the agenda for planning meetings, indicated that the agenda was set by the planning team (principal, teachers, career service, parents, community representatives). A total of 19.2% indicated that the agenda was set by staff designees with and without the principal, while 14.9% reported that the local school council set the agenda.

In reporting on when planning took place, 77.7% indicated that it took place at the beginning of the year. Over half, 55.3%, also reported that it occurred at the end of the first semester, while 41.8% indicated that it occurred at the end of the year. Hence, from the beginning to the end of the year, 35.9% had stopped planning. There was a 22.4% drop from the beginning of the year until the end of the first semester and an additional 13.5% drop from the end of the first semester until the end of the year.

In analyzing the frequency with which planning took place, respondents were given the option of indicating, weekly, monthly, or quarterly. A total of 3% entered the option yearly. The majority of the respondents to this item, 76.8%, indicated that they met weekly or monthly, with 41.5% citing weekly and 35.4% indicating monthly. An additional

20.2% chose the option quarterly. It appears that planning meetings occurred on a regular on-going basis throughout the year, but that by the end of the year, under half were still planning.

INVOLVEMENT AND INFLUENCE IN SCHOOL PLANNING

Items four and five of the school planning questionnaire asked respondents to rate the degree of their involvement and perceived influence in school planning on a five-point Likert-type scale with 0 equated with "no involvement/influence" and 4 equivalent to "high involvement/influence." The means and standard deviations for these data are presented in table 10 below.

Table 10. Mean Ratings for Involvement and Influence in Decision-Making.

N=114

<u>Aspect</u>	<u>Area</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>Descriptor</u>
Involvement	Reading	2.7	1.4	Some-A lot
	Mathematics	2.3	1.5	Some-A lot
	Student Attendance	2.6	1.5	Some-A lot
	Teacher Attendance	2.0	1.6	Some-A lot
Influence	Reading	2.6	1.3	Some-A lot
	Mathematics	2.3	1.4	Some-A lot
	Student Attendance	2.5	1.3	Some-A lot
	Teacher Attendance	1.9	1.6	Little-Some

Examination of these data reveals that overall involvement was closely related to perceived influence. The degree of involvement was slightly higher than the degree of influence. The degree of involvement was highest for the areas of student attendance and reading and lowest for the area of teacher attendance. The degree of influence was highest

for reading and least for the area of teacher attendance. Given the previous findings, that teacher attendance planning was usually more administratively oriented, this finding is not surprising. The greatest deviation in responses was noted for the area of teacher attendance.

DIFFERENCES IN PERCEIVED INVOLVEMENT AND INFLUENCE BY POSITION AND TRAINING

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was utilized to determine if the differences in involvement and influence ratings for each of the four planning areas varied significantly by position of the respondents. Table 11 summarizes the findings.

Table 11. Results from One-Way Analysis of Variance Tests on Involvement and Influence By Position

<u>Aspect</u>	<u>Area</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>Df.</u>	<u>Significance</u>
Involvement	Reading	3.339	2	.04
	Mathematics	2.757	2	.07
	Student Attendance	6.580	2	.003
	Teacher Attendance	4.897	2	.010
Influence	Reading	1.040	2	.36
	Mathematics	1.001	2	.37
	Student Attendance	4.979	2	.009
	Teacher Attendance	5.341	2	.007

Results of the 1-way ANOVA indicate that the differences between positions was greater than the differences within the positions in three areas for the aspect of involvement

and in two areas for the aspect of influence. In examining the significant differences for the involvement in decision-making, cross-tabulations of responses and differences between means by position were analyzed.

An analysis of the significant differences for the area of reading follow. The majority of the administrators, 73.9%, indicated that they had a high degree of involvement in making decisions about this area. A total of 33.9% of the teachers and 15.4% of the parents indicated that they had a high degree of involvement in decisions regarding the area of improvement of reading achievement. The mean involvement ratings by position were: administrators: 3.3, teachers: 2.6, and parents: 2.2.

The differences for the area of mathematics were not significant. The mean ratings for each position fell within the 2.1-2.95 range.

In the area of student attendance, the differences between the mean ratings by position were significant. Once again, a majority of the administrators, 75%, indicated that they had a high level of involvement in the decisions. By way of contrast, 33.3% of the parents and 26.8% of the teachers felt that they had a high degree of involvement in this area. The mean involvement ratings by position were: administrators: 3.4, teachers: 2.2, and parents: 2.8.

In the area of involvement in the area of planning for teacher attendance, differences by position were also significant. The mean involvement ratings by position were: administrators: 2.9, teachers: 1.7, and parents: 1.7. A somewhat smaller majority of the administrators, 60.9%, indicated that they had a high degree of involvement in this area compared to 21.8% of the teachers and 16.7% of the parents.

In considering differences by position in the perceived influence that persons had in making decisions, two of the four areas were found to differ significantly: student attendance and teacher attendance. The mean ratings for the area of student attendance by

position were: administrators: 3.2, teachers: 2.3, and parents: 2.4. A total of 58.3% of the administrators indicated a high degree of influence, while only 25% of the parents and 21% of the teachers perceived that their influence was of this level.

The mean ratings for the area of teacher attendance by position were: administrators: 2.8, teachers: 1.7, and parents: 1.5. A total of 52.2% of the administrators indicated a high degree of influence, while only 18.2% of the parents and 16.1% of the teachers perceived that their influence was of this level in this area.

Hence, null hypotheses 7 and 9 were rejected for the following areas: Ho7=There is no difference in degree of involvement based on position was rejected for the planning areas of reading, student attendance, and teacher attendance. Ho9=There is no difference in the degree of influence based on position was rejected for the areas of student attendance and teacher attendance.

Null hypotheses 8 and 10 explored differences in involvement and influence ratings by training ratings in the planning areas of reading and mathematics. The results of the 1-way ANOVAs are presented in table 12 below.

Table 12. Results From One-Way Analysis of Variance Tests on Involvement and Influence by Training for the Areas of Reading and Mathematics

<u>Aspect</u>	<u>Area</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>Df</u>	<u>Significance</u>
Involvement	Reading	4.536	4	.003
	Mathematics	3.872	4	.006
Influence	Reading	3.562	4	.010
	Mathematics	3.872	4	.006

Results from the 1-Way ANOVAs indicate that significant differences in the ratings for perceived involvement and influence in the decisions relating to mathematics and reading

varied by the degree of training in these areas. Examination of cross-tabulations for these areas provides insight into where the differences occurred.

In the area of influence in the decision-making for improving reading achievement, it was noted that those persons with higher levels of training in reading had higher mean levels of influence in planning, for the most part (Reading Level 0: Mean Rating=2.07, Reading Level 1: Mean Rating=2.5, Reading Level 2: Mean Rating=2.09, Reading Level 3: Mean Rating=3.0, Reading Level 4: Mean Rating=3.3). The exception to this trend was at training level 2, where a lesser degree of influence was evidenced than at training level 1.

Examination of the results for involvement in decision-making regarding improvement of reading achievement revealed that involvement was greater for those persons with more training: (Reading Level 0: Mean Rating=1.90, Reading Level 1: Mean Rating=2.44, Reading Level 2: Mean Rating=2.35, Reading Level 3: Mean Rating=3.18, Reading Level 4: Mean Rating=3.73). The exception to this trend was noted at training level 2, where a lesser degree of involvement was evidenced than at training level 1.

Review of the data on degree of influence by mathematics training level was somewhat less clear cut: (Mathematics Level 0: Mean Rating=1.50, Mathematics Level 1: Mean Rating=2.48, Mathematics Level 2: Mean Rating=2.28, Mathematics Level 3: Mean Rating=2.94, Mathematics Level 4: Mean Rating=2.86). It can be concluded, however, that those persons perceived as having the least amount of influence also had the least amount of training.

The analysis of the mean ratings on involvement in the planning for mathematics achievement revealed that those persons with higher degrees of training had greater involvement in planning. The one exception to this trend was that those persons with level two training in mathematics were involved to a somewhat lesser degree than those persons with level 1 training. The mean values for involvement by mathematics training level were:

(Mathematics Level 0: Mean Rating=1.40, Mathematics Level 1: Mean Rating=2.65, Mathematics Level 2: Mean Rating=2.21, Mathematics Level 3: Mean Rating=3.00, Mathematics Level 4: Mean Rating=3.20).

Hence, Ho8=There is no difference in the degree of involvement based on training rating (mathematics and reading objectives only), and Ho10=There is no difference in the degree of influence based on training rating (mathematics and reading objectives only) were rejected for all areas considered.

It appeared from these data that the perceived degree of involvement in decisions and the perceived degree of influence in decisions were related. Spearman correlation coefficients testing the correlation of the degree of influence with the degree of involvement for the planning areas of reading, mathematics, student attendance, and teacher attendance confirmed this hypothesis. Table 13 presents these data.

Table 13. Results from Spearman Correlation Tests on Involvement and Influence

<u>Area</u>	<u>Rho</u>	<u>Significance</u>
Reading	.821	.000
Mathematics	.859	.000
Student Attendance	.849	.000
Teacher Attendance	.866	.000

The values of over .80 represent a strong positive correlation. It was concluded that those persons perceiving that they were involved to a great degree, also felt that they had a great deal of influence on the decisions in the areas targeted.

PHASES OF DECISION-MAKING

Stuckwisch outlined five stages in decision-making. These are stated as:

1. Originating the issue
2. Establishing guidelines for resolution of the issue
3. Gathering information
4. Determining possible solutions
5. Choosing the solution

Items 9a and 9b of the School Planning Questionnaire analyzed the phases in which the respondents were involved in planning, and when they first became involved in planning. Figures 20 to 23 illustrate the comparison between involvement in planning and the stage in which the group first became involved for the four areas: reading, mathematics, student attendance, and teacher attendance. (Refer to figures 20-23).

Examination of figures 20 through 23 reveals that the plurality of the respondents indicated involvement in the fourth stage of decision-making, determining possible solutions (reading: 59.3%, mathematics: 55.8%, student attendance: 60.2%, and teacher attendance: 43.4%). Over 40% were also involved in the third stage, gathering information, for the planning areas, reading, mathematics, and student attendance. In the area of teacher attendance, the plurality of the respondents, 43.4% and 30.1% respectively, indicated involvement at stages 4, determining possible solutions and 5, choosing the solution.

Analysis of the data regarding the stages when persons first became involved in the decision-making process, reveals that the plurality first became involved at stages 3, gathering information and 4, determining possible solutions. Over 40% of the respondents cited stage three as the decisional phase where they first became involved in decision-making for the areas of reading, mathematics, and student attendance. The plurality,

30.3%, indicated stage 3 as the point where they first became involved in planning for the area of teacher attendance.

While figures 20-23 illustrate the comparison between involvement and first involvement, figures 24 and 25 compare each of the planning areas for involvement and first involvement. (Refer to figures 24 and 25).

Examination of figure 24 reveals that there was greater involvement in the areas of reading and student attendance, while the least involvement was in the area of planning for the improvement of teacher attendance. Involvement peaked across all areas at the fourth stage, determining possible solutions. Nearly one-third were involved at stage one, originating the issue for the area of reading, and stage 2, establishing the guidelines for resolution of the issue, for the areas of mathematics and student attendance.

Figure 25 illustrates that while the plurality were first involved at stage three for all areas, the greatest discrepancy of first involvement occurred for the area of reading (33.9%-49.5%). The least amount of discrepancy occurred for the area of teacher attendance, where nearly equal percentages of respondents (22.0%-30.3%) first became involved in planning in all stages.

Participation in planning analyzed by planning stages was also analyzed in terms of differences by position (administrator, teacher, and parent). Chi-square analysis was utilized to determine significant differences.

Significant differences were noted only in the area of teacher attendance for the issue of first involvement in planning. Chi-square values were significant at stages 2 (chi-square=8.239, $p<.016$), 3 (chi-square=5.863, $p<.053$), and 4 (chi-square=6.108, $p<.047$).

For the issue of teacher attendance, a total of 45.8% of the administrators were first involved at stage two, establishing guidelines for the resolution of the issue. By

comparison, 22.9% of the teachers were first involved at this stage and 6.7% of the parents. A total of 50% of the administrators were first involved with this issue at stage three, gathering information as compared to 25.7% of the teachers and 20.0% of the parents.

A total of 45.8% of the administrators were first involved in the planning for this issue at stage four, determining possible solutions. In comparison, 20.0% of the teachers and 26.7% of the parents were first involved at this stage.

Perusal of these data supports previous findings of greater involvement by administrators on this issue. Furthermore, greater involvement occurred at earlier stages in the decision-making process.

THE DYNAMICS OF THE SHARED DECISION-MAKING PROCESS

This portion of the study explored reactions to the decision-making process and aspects that influence decisions. The following questions serve as the structure of analysis.

WHAT ARE THE DYNAMICS OF THE PROCESS OF SHARED DECISION-MAKING?

2) How do participants react when the decision reached is contrary to their view? How does this vary by position? What influences participants the most in reaching a decision?

These data were determined by interviews. Descriptive data were tabulated and anecdotal information analyzed and summarized as follows.

In the interview, representatives of each position type were queried on two questions

related to the dynamics of shared decision-making. Question five of the interview inquired: "When a shared decision that has been reached is contrary to your viewpoint, what is your reaction? What steps would you take to modify such a decision?"

The plurality of the principals (40%) answering this question indicated that they would go along with the consensus, unless it was illegal or dangerous. Illegal or dangerous items would be rejected. A total of (26.7%) indicated that they would overrule the decision, would not implement the decision, or listen and then go with their own view, or only support it if they thought the idea would work. A total of (26.7%) noted that they would try and understand the other view, but they would go with the consensus. A total of (6.7%) indicated that they go along with the decision. One principal stated: "I would probably go along with the decision. I would wonder why and try to find out why we disagreed. I would offer alternatives. If this was a shared decision, I would take the consensus."

Teachers were more focused on cooperating with the group decision. A total of 46.7% indicated that they would cooperate with the group and go along with the decision. A total of 13.3% indicated that they would request a review. An additional 13.3% stated that they would repackage their views or try and modify their views. A total of 13.3% also indicated that they would try and find support for their ideas either within or outside of the group. A total of 6.7% respectively noted that they would rethink their views and look for alternatives. One teacher stated: "I would be disappointed, but being aware of the democratic process, I would therefore cooperate. I would try and modify it, similar to a minority report. If enough are dissatisfied, then it would be open for discussion again. I would go on record as disagreeing. If it is open, I would reevaluate my stand. It is important to present common agreement. (A minority report should be known to the committee only)."

The parent group appeared to be the one most likely to go along with group decisions. A total of 60% stated that they would go along with whatever was decided by the group. A total of 13.3% indicated that they would go along with the decision, but go on record as dissenting. A total of 6.7% stated respectively that they would: fight the decision, go along with the decision, but request a later review, or only go along if they were convinced. As one parent stated: "When I do not get my way, I'm not always pleased, but I have a wait and see attitude. I believe that consensus is needed. Results must have clear wording on what is decided, a time-table as to when it will be completed and it must be subject to review."

The sixth interview question queried participants in the study regarding what influenced them the most in reaching a decision. Three choices were given as possible answers: the number of people supporting the idea, the level of expertise of the persons supporting the idea, or the idea itself, as they saw it.

The plurality of principals answering this question (46.7%) indicated that it was the idea itself as they saw it that influenced them the most. A total of 20% indicated that it was the factor of expertise that influenced them the most. A total of 26.7% indicated that it was a combination of expertise of the persons supporting the idea and how they themselves viewed the idea. One individual (6.7% of the respondents) indicated that it was the number of persons supporting the idea that influenced them the most.

Teachers used more approach combinations in their responses to this item. Approximately one-third of the respondents indicated that it was the idea itself, as they saw it that most influenced them. An additional third, indicated that it was the combination of expertise and the idea itself. A total of 20% indicated that it was expertise of those supporting the idea that most influenced them. A total of 13.3% indicated that it was a combination of all three factors: the number of people supporting the idea, the expertise of

those supporting the idea, and the idea itself, as they saw it.

The plurality of the parents, 33.3%, indicated that it was the idea itself as they saw it that influenced them the most. A total of 13.3% chose expertise. The combination of expertise and the idea itself was chosen by 26.7% of the parents. The number of persons supporting the idea, expertise, and the idea itself was indicated by 20% of the parents. Finally, the number of people supporting the idea and expertise was selected by one parent (6.7% of the respondents).

Perusal of these data reveals that 6.7% of the administrators included the number of persons supporting the idea as a factor compared to 13.3% of the teachers, and 26.7% of the parents. Administrators were also more likely to choose single factors. The administrators were most likely to choose the factor, the idea itself, as they saw it.

Hence, it is seen that the dynamics of the decision-making process differ by the position of the individuals included on the team. The perceived outcomes of shared decision-making are examined in the section to follow.

PERCEIVED OUTCOMES OF SHARED DECISION-MAKING

This portion of the analyses explored the following questions and null hypotheses.

WHAT ARE THE PERCEIVED OUTCOMES OF SHARED DECISION-MAKING?

3) What are the perceived effects of shared decision-making in the areas of: improvement of the school, improvement of the school's objectives, benefits to participants, time constraints, communication, staff motivation, staff morale, and unexpected outcomes? Do the

factors of training rating, degree that shared-decision making took place, degree of perceived involvement, degree of perceived influence or degree of perceived implementation of the decision, predict the ratings on the planning areas of reading achievement, mathematics achievement, student attendance and teacher attendance?

Null hypotheses for these issues are:

H_{011} =Training rating, degree that shared decision-making took place, degree of perceived implementation, degree of perceived involvement, or degree of perceived influence do not predict the rating on improved reading.

H_{012} =Training rating, degree that shared decision-making took place, degree of perceived implementation, degree of perceived involvement, or degree of perceived influence do not predict the rating on improved mathematics.

H_{013} =Degree of perceived involvement, degree of perceived influence, degree of perceived implementation, or degree that shared decision-making took place, do not predict the rating on improved student attendance.

H_{014} =Degree of perceived involvement, degree of perceived influence, degree of perceived implementation, or degree that shared decision-making took place, do not predict the rating on improved teacher attendance.

The School Planning Questionnaire supplemented by interviews provided answers to these questions. Overall findings are summarized below followed by the results of the multiple regression analyses.

DID SHARED DECISION-MAKING TAKE PLACE?

A number of items on the school planning questionnaire suggest that overall, shared

decision-making took place in school planning activities.

Participants in the survey indicated familiarity with the terms "shared decision-making" and "participative management." A total of 92.4% indicated that they were familiar with these terms. The group as a whole, had received "little" training in the shared decision-making process.

It was noted in items 14, 15, and 16 that the majority of the respondents participated in decisions in 15 of the 17 planning areas. The form of decision-making most often selected as descriptive of their participative role was "make the decision as a part of the group."

Item two of the School Planning Questionnaire focusing on the frequency of participation in planning for the four areas targeted in this study, indicates that principals "usually to always" participated, teachers "usually to always" participated, and parents "seldom to usually" participated in the areas of reading, mathematics, and teacher attendance, but "usually" participated in planning for student attendance.

Item three of the planning questionnaire revealed that the agenda was usually determined by a planning team comprised of (principal, teachers, career service, parents, community representatives, and others). It was noted in items 10 and 11 that planning took place throughout the school year with planning meetings most frequently occurring on a weekly or monthly basis.

Overall involvement fell in the moderate range as indicated on the Likert-type scale used in item four of the questionnaire. Perceived influence was moderate for the areas of reading, mathematics, and student attendance, but somewhat lower for the area of teacher attendance.

Items 6 and 7 of the school planning questionnaire requested that participants in the study indicate their perception of the degree to which shared decision-making took place at

the school and the extent to which plans were communicated across all levels of the school. In responding to item 6, "To what degree did shared decision-making take place at your school?;" the mean rating on the five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 0 to 4, was 3.240 with a standard deviation of .745. This indicates that a moderately high degree of shared decision-making took place as perceived by the respondents. Participants in the study indicated that plans were communicated across all levels of the school to a moderately high degree as well: mean=3.220, s.d.=.811.

PERCEIVED IMPORTANCE OF PARTICIPATION IN DECISION-MAKING TO THE INDIVIDUAL

Item 8 of the School Planning Questionnaire requested that participants in the survey indicate the extent to which shared decision-making had been helpful to them. The five-point Likert scale ranging from 0 to 4 was utilized for this evaluation. The mean response, overall, was 3.3 with a standard deviation of .847, indicating that participation in shared decision-making was considered to be helpful to the individual to a moderately high degree. Responses to this item were not significantly different by position.

Question 12 of the School Planning Questionnaire focused on the perceived effect of the decision on the individual personally. The key of 0=None, 1=Little, 2=Some, 3=High, and 4=Very High was used as a guide. Mean responses and standard deviations for each of the planning areas are presented in table 14 below.

Table 14. Perceived Effects of Decisions on the Individual

N=114 (Ns varied for each group)

<u>Area</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>Descriptor</u>
Reading	2.8	1.2	Some- <u>High</u>
Mathematics	2.4	1.4	<u>Some</u> -High
Student Attendance	2.6	1.4	Some- <u>High</u>
Teacher Attendance	2.3	1.6	<u>Some</u> -High

Examination of table 14 reveals that participants felt that decisions in the areas of reading and student attendance had a "high" effect on them personally, while decisions about mathematics and teacher attendance had "some" effect. It is hypothesized that this could be due to the fact that there was less involvement in the decisions about these areas. The greatest deviation in responses was noted for the area of teacher attendance.

Chi-square analysis was performed to determine if significant differences in the descriptors existed based on position. Two planning areas were found to have significant differences in their ratings by position: planning for student attendance, chi-square =24.8, $p<.002$ and planning for teacher attendance, chi-square =23.023, $p<.003$.

Examination of the responses by position for the planning area of student attendance, indicated that the majority of the administrators (65.2%), and the plurality of the teachers (28%) chose 4, "very high", as descriptive of the effect that the decision had on them personally. In contrast, the plurality of the parents, 36.4%, chose 2, "some", as descriptive of the effect that the decision had on them personally. Results of this analysis could be due to the fact that plans would have the greatest impact at the school level.

Study of the response configuration for the planning area of teacher attendance, revealed that the majority of the administrators, 63.6%, selected the descriptor "very high." The plurality of the teachers, 30.6%, selected the descriptor, "very high," while the plurality of the parents, 33.3%, selected the descriptors "none" and "some." This could be

due to the fact that parents indicated little involvement in planning for this area.

A related item, 17, requested that participants in the study indicate how important it had been for them to participate in the decisions for the four planning areas: reading, mathematics, student attendance, and teacher attendance. The scale used in this analysis was 0 to 4, with 4 equated to "high" and 0 equated to "none." Table 15 presents the means and standard deviations for these findings.

Table 15. Perceived Importance of Participation in Decisions
About Four Areas.

N=114 (Ns varied for each group)

<u>Area</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>Descriptor</u>
Reading	3.4	.943	<u>Some-High</u>
Mathematics	3.2	1.13	<u>Some-High</u>
Student Attendance	3.1	1.16	<u>Some-High</u>
Teacher Attendance	2.3	1.40	<u>Little-Some</u>

Examination of these data reveals that individuals felt that it was somewhat important that they participate in decisions about the areas of reading, mathematics, and student attendance. Academic areas were perceived to be more important than attendance. The group as a whole, attached a lesser degree of importance to planning for the improvement of teacher attendance. It should be noted, however, that the greatest deviation in responses was noted for the area of teacher attendance.

One-way ANOVA was performed to determine if there were significant differences between the position types on the importance ratings. Two areas were found to be significantly different. The ANOVA results for the areas of student attendance and teacher attendance are presented in table 16 below.

Table 16. Results From One-Way Analysis of Variance Tests on the Importance of Participation in Decisions About Student Attendance and Teacher Attendance by Position

<u>Aspect Area</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>Df</u>	<u>Sig.</u>
Student Attendance	6.665	2	.002
Teacher Attendance	8.658	2	.001

Cross-tabulations of the responses to these items by position revealed where the differences between the positions existed. For the area of student attendance, the majority of the administrators, 83.3%, chose "highly important," 4. By comparison, 45.5% of the teachers chose this response and 39.3% of the parents chose this response.

In the area of teacher attendance, the majority of the administrators, 68.2%, chose "highly important" and the plurality of the teachers, 34.7%, chose "highly important." In contrast, the plurality of the parents, 40.0%, chose "no importance."

The results from the analysis of item 17 of the school planning questionnaire closely paralleled the findings from item 12, the effects of the decision on individuals personally.

The final item related to the effects of the decisions on individuals was question 16 from the school planning questionnaire, "How satisfied were you with the decisions?" The key, 0=none, 1=little, 2=some, 3=high, and 4=very high was used in this analysis. The means and standard deviations of the ratings for the group as a whole are presented in table 17.

Table 17. Satisfaction with Decisions by Area
N=114 (Ns varied for each group)

<u>Area</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>Descriptor</u>
Reading	3.22	.726	<u>High</u> -Very High
Mathematics	2.94	.986	Some- <u>High</u>
Student Attendance	3.10	.988	<u>High</u> -Very High
Teacher Attendance	2.89	1.14	Some- <u>High</u>

Review of the findings from table 17 indicates that as a group the participants in the study were highly satisfied with their decisions. Satisfaction with the decisions for the area of teacher attendance and mathematics, was somewhat less than the satisfaction level for the other areas. The greatest deviation in responses was noted for the area of teacher attendance. No significant differences were indicated by position.

PERCEIVED EFFECTS OF PARTICIPATION IN DECISION-MAKING TO THE SCHOOL

Five items from the School Planning Questionnaire were analyzed to determine the perceived effects of shared decision-making on the school.

Item 13 from the School Planning Questionnaire requested participants in the study to indicate the effect of the decisions on the school for the areas of reading, mathematics, student attendance, and teacher attendance. The five-point Likert-type scale was utilized in the ratings (0=none, 1=little, 2=some, 3=high, and 4=very high). Table 18 presents the means and standard deviations for these items.

Table 18. Perceived Effects of Decisions on the School by Area
N=114 (Ns varied for each group)

<u>Area</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>Descriptor</u>
Reading	3.18	.995	<u>High-Very High</u>
Mathematics	3.01	1.08	<u>High-Very High</u>
Student Attendance	2.98	1.14	<u>Some-High</u>
Teacher Attendance	2.70	1.32	<u>Some-High</u>

Examination of these data indicates that the perceived effects of the decisions on the school were high for all of the targeted areas. The greatest effects were perceived to occur in the area of reading, while the smallest effect was in the area of teacher attendance. No differences by position were noted.

Item 14 focused on perceptions regarding how effective the planning had been in improving the targeted areas of reading, mathematics, student attendance, and teacher attendance. Table 19 presents the means and standard deviations by area.

Table 19. Perceived Effectiveness of Shared Decision-Making on Improving Targeted Areas

N=114 (Ns varied for each group)

<u>Area</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>Descriptor</u>
Reading	2.79	.883	<u>Some-High</u>
Mathematics	2.63	1.00	<u>Some-High</u>
Student Attendance	2.62	1.05	<u>Some-High</u>
Teacher Attendance	2.26	1.27	<u>Some-High</u>

While the means for all areas fell in the "somewhat" range, the trend was toward the "high" range for all areas except teacher attendance, which was rated slightly lower. The

greatest deviation in responses was noted for the area of teacher attendance. Significant differences were not noted by position.

Item 15, of the School Planning Questionnaire dealt with the extent to which decisions were implemented or carried out. The means and standard deviations for these data are presented by area in table 20 below.

Table 20. The Degree to which Decisions were Implemented or Carried Out by Area
N=114 (Ns varied for each group)

<u>Area</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>Descriptor</u>
Reading	3.15	.870	Some- <u>High</u>
Mathematics	2.88	1.02	Some- <u>High</u>
Student Attendance	2.99	1.03	Some- <u>High</u>
Teacher Attendance	2.75	1.20	Some- <u>High</u>

The mean responses to this item all fell in the "high" range. Significant differences were not noted by position.

A follow-up question explored the possibility that the perceived effectiveness of planning was correlated with the degree to which decisions were implemented. Spearman correlation tests yielded the following results presented in table 21 below.

Table 21. Results from Spearman Correlation Tests on Implementation and Improvement in Planning

<u>Area</u>	<u>Rho</u>	<u>Significance</u>
Reading	.525	.000
Mathematics	.369	.000
Student Attendance	.674	.000
Teacher Attendance	.754	.000

Examination of these data indicate that a moderately strong positive correlation existed between implementation and perceived improvement for the areas of teacher attendance and student attendance. A moderate positive correlation was noted for the areas of reading and mathematics, with mathematics demonstrating the lowest of the correlations. All correlations were found to be significant.

Question 20 of the School Planning Questionnaire was an open-ended item requesting the participants to indicate what they perceived to be the benefits of participation in shared decision-making as related to school planning. Sixteen responses were provided by administrators (principals and assistant principals). A total of 43.8% of the responses dealt with the concept of increased support and commitment for the decisions from parents and faculty. An additional 12.5%, focused on a greater sense of self-worth from participating in shared decision-making. The responses of the remaining individuals focused on generating additional good ideas, having a better understanding of other viewpoints, feeling a part of a team, improved staff relations, better rapport with the staff, higher interest level at the school, in general, and having all participants impact upon school progress. As one principal phrased it, "The benefit is the feeling that everybody, principal, teachers, staff, parents, community members, are responsible and working toward the goals that have been set."

One parent responded to this item on the survey.

The teaching staff presented the most responses to this item. A total of 58 responses were provided for analysis. The plurality of the teachers, 17.2%, focused on having a better understanding of the school and its needs. A total of 10.3% reported the importance of the cooperation and commitment of the staff. An additional 8.6%, focused on improved teamwork and greater involvement of the staff. Nearly 5% noted that shared decision-making provided more and better ideas. An additional 5% stated that they felt appreciated

as a professional or noted that their opinions counted. A total of 3% focused respectively on the diversity of the participants in decision-making, the importance of the shared decision-making process itself, greater agreement by the participants, greater availability of materials as a result of their participation, or improved student performance. The remaining individual responses included: money was spent with teacher input, a feeling of greater connection to solutions to problems, more input into the solutions, sharing common goals, shared expertise, sharing the realities of the classroom, improved staff relations, better instruction, more interest, more production, better reading goals, improved morale, and implementation of the objectives. One individual noted that they had learned from participation in the shared decision-making process. Another individual indicated that they felt that they had not been sufficiently involved. Statements by the teachers included: "My ideas made a difference in the planning process." "I became more aware of the total school community needs." "It allowed staff members with a wide variety of expertise, the opportunity to come up with common goals for the benefit of all the students within our school."

A total of 10 parents provided responses to this item. The plurality, 30%, indicated that they had a better understanding of the school and its needs. Other comments indicated that they enjoyed participation, became more informed and liked hearing issues from the parents point of view. One parent stated, "Parents viewpoints get expressed. More dialogue yields better opinions."

Question 19 of the School Planning Questionnaire focused on unexpected outcomes from participation in shared decision-making as related to school planning.

Eight administrators elaborated on this item. Responses included: increased faculty morale, a change in self and a greater appreciation of the shared decision-making process. A total of 37.5% of the responses focused on improved participation and cooperation. One

principal commented that his point of view was rarely taken nor did people listen to him. Another administrator noted that too many decisions were lost in time, as if they never had been made.

A total of 11 teachers commented on this item. Responses focused on achieving a better understanding of how colleagues and parents viewed the school, improved group cohesiveness, the ability to use the shared decision-making process in other areas besides planning, having a better feeling about the school, the issues and self, attaining a better understanding of the goals and expectations for other grades, and hearing other points of view. Two teachers highlighted the fact that others were depending on their input and were listening and using their ideas. One teacher stated that they were surprised to learn that parents and community members did not know what went on at the school. Two teachers noted that members were not always willing to cooperate and hostility was exhibited at times.

Parents noted that there was more motivation for success, a greater appreciation of the school staff, their commitment, and knowledge, and improved communication. One parent highlighted the fact that their ideas had been tried.

SHARED DECISION-MAKING ISSUES

Seven areas were explored in this portion of the study. They included perceptions regarding time, training, staff relations, motivation, morale, effects on the principal, effects on the teacher, communication, and school goals when shared decision-making is employed. A final question queried participants in the study as to what they would like changed about the planning process. The interview also focused on the factors perceived to be most important in determining the success of shared decision-making.

TIME

Item 21 of the School Planning Questionnaire used a four-point Likert-type scale in the analysis of issues associated with shared decision-making. Respondents were to indicate their opinions to a series of statements regarding shared decision-making. Each item was prefaced with the words: "When the shared decision-making approach is used in school planning..." The key for responses was: 0=never, 1=rarely, 2=occasionally, 3=frequently, and 4=usually or always. Item 21 (1) finished the statement with "Too much time is spent in the decision-making process." The mean response for this item was 1.65 with a standard deviation of .98. This would indicate that the average respondent felt that when shared decision-making is used in school planning, occasionally too much time is spent in the decision-making process. Responses did not differ significantly by position. It was also noted that in response to item 18 of the School Planning Questionnaire on what people would like changed about the planning process, a number of respondents indicated that they felt more time was needed.

TRAINING

Item 11 on the identifying information portion of the School Planning Questionnaire revealed that the majority of respondents had received either "no training" or "little training" in the shared decision-making process. In describing the training that they had received, principals focused on graduate courses, reading of professional journals, workshops, doctoral programs, administrative training, local school council retreats, and Chicago Board of Education inservices. Teachers highlighted courses toward administrative certificates, Board of Education workshops, LSC training, Joyce foundation meetings,

consensus building workshops, professional problem committee experience, and state training sessions. Parents focused on college courses, experience as a manager, PTA workshops, and management training.

The mean response and standard deviation for item 21 (2), "When the shared decision-making approach is used in school planning, participants should be trained in the shared decision-making process," was 3.07, s.d. 1.07. This was equated with the response, "frequently." Chi-square analysis revealed significant differences by position on this item, ($\chi^2=20.337$, $p<.009$). Examination of the cross-tabulation indicates that 54.2% of the administrators and 48.5% of the teachers chose the rating 4, "usually" or "always," while 61.5% of the parents indicated 2, "occasionally." Hence, it would appear that the teachers and administrators felt that training was more important than the parents.

Question three on the interview asked principals, teachers and parents whether they felt training for participating in decision-making was necessary, and if so what form it should take. A total of 12 (80%) of the principals said that training was necessary, two (13.3%) indicated that it depended on the individuals, and one (6.7%) stated that training was not necessary. All 15 of the parents surveyed indicated that they felt training was necessary. A total of 13 (86.7%) of the teachers felt that training was necessary, while two (13.3%) indicated that it depended on the situation.

Elaboration on the description of training from the administrators focused on structure, content and trainer characteristics. Half of the responses were structure oriented. Comments regarding structure indicated that programs should be held after school hours to accommodate parents and utilize a variety of approaches. Two individuals stated that the programs should be in-house at the local school level. In contrast, one respondent indicated that the programs should occur at the district level and one principal indicated that they must be conducted as a system. Three persons indicated that a hands-on approach

should be utilized including role playing in small groups. The administrator's comments regarding trainer characteristics emphasized that trainers should be knowledgeable regarding content and process. Content suggestions included: simulation of the instructional program, philosophy discussion--understanding the school plan, its goals and objectives, committee procedure, how choices are made, school organization and law, the art of consensus building, financial analysis of the budget, and a review of roles and responsibilities.

The responses of the teachers included an equal number of structure and content statements and three training statements. Structure suggestions included: internship, on-the-job training, programs in many languages to meet the needs of cultural diversity, whole-group instruction with booklets and homework, small-group workshops, observation of others, and hands-on inservices. Statements regarding the trainers noted that they should be experts and not people from the Central office. Content statements included: leadership training, guidelines for decision-making, budget, the process of committee work, how to avoid power plays, and Roberts Rules.

Parent elaboration addressed structure and content. Nearly 56% of the parent statements focused on content. Content suggestions included: a general orientation to the goals and objectives, budgets and program development, human relations, reaching consensus and the development of group skills, how to avoid confrontation, appreciation and mutual respect, understanding duties, how schools operate. Structure statements included: workshops, local planning and training, on-the-job training, small-group instruction at the district level, hands-on and lecture, and participatory workshops.

Examination of these statements reveals that administrators and teachers appeared to

be more concerned about the expertise of the trainer than were the parents. Parents and teachers focused more on internship as a method of training.

STAFF RELATIONSHIPS, MORALE, AND MOTIVATION

Items 21 (3), 21(6), and 21(10) of the School Planning Questionnaire addressed the issue of staff relationships. In responding to the statement, "When the shared decision-making approach is used in school planning, poor staff relationships could result," the mean response was 1.383 with a standard deviation of .978. This is interpreted as "rarely."

Item 21 (6) stated, "When the shared decision-making approach is used in school planning, staff morale improves." Respondents to this item indicated that this "frequently" happened. The mean response was 3.358, with a standard deviation of .693.

Finally, item 21 (10) stated, "When the shared decision-making approach is used in school planning, it improves staff motivation towards goal accomplishment." The mean response to this item was "frequently to always", 3.462, s.d.=.692.

It appears that as a group, the respondents felt that shared decision-making had a positive impact on staff morale, motivation, and relationships. Differences by position were not present for any of these items, as assessed by chi-square analysis.

EFFECTS OF SHARED DECISION-MAKING ON THE PRINCIPAL

Items 21 (4) and 21 (8) addressed the possibility of this procedure being difficult for the principal. Item 21 (4) was stated as: "When the shared decision-making approach is

used in school planning, it is more difficult for the principal." The mean response to this item was "occasionally," 1.79, s.d.=1.77.

Item 21 (8) was stated as: "When the shared decision-making approach is used in school planning, it undermines the principals authority." The mean response to this item was "rarely," .867, s.d.=.797.

The consensus of the respondents indicated that this approach does not pose great difficulties for the principal and does not undermine his/her authority. Chi-square analyses of these items did not yield significant differences by position.

EFFECTS OF SHARED DECISION-MAKING ON THE TEACHER

Item 21 (5) paralleled the item on principals, but focused on teachers. It was stated as: "When the shared decision-making approach is used in school planning, it is more difficult for the teachers." The mean response to this item was "occasionally," 1.69, s.d.=1.088.

Chi-square analysis indicated that there were significant differences by position on this item, chi-square=16.548, $p<.035$. Analysis of the cross-tabulation revealed that 47.8% of the administrators selected 1, "rarely," 32.9% of the teachers selected the descriptor, "rarely," and 53.9% of the parents selected the descriptor, "rarely." It was also noted, however, that 17.4% of the administrators selected the descriptor, "usually." None of the parents selected this descriptor, and only 2.9% of the teachers selected this descriptor. It would appear that the administrators perceived shared decision-making to be more difficult for the teachers than did the parents or teachers.

COMMUNICATION

Question 7 on the School Planning Questionnaire indicated that plans had been communicated across all levels of the school to a moderately high degree, 3.2 on the 0 to 4 scale. Items 21 (7) and 21 (11) of the school planning questionnaire addressed the issues of within and between school communication and shared decision-making.

Item 21 (7) was stated as: "When the shared decision-making approach is used in school planning, inter-school communication improves." The mean response to this item was "frequently", 3.368, s.d.=.681.

Item 21 (11) was stated as: "When the shared decision-making approach is used in school planning, intra-school communication improves." The mean response to this item was also "frequently", 3.303, s.d.=.858.

Chi-square analyses did not yield significant differences by position. It would appear that the respondents to this survey felt that the shared decision-making approach improved both between and within school communication.

ACCOMPLISHMENT OF SCHOOL GOALS

It was noted in item 14 of the School Planning Questionnaire that participants in the survey felt planning had been "highly effective" in improving reading, mathematics, and student attendance. Planning was viewed as being "somewhat effective" in improving teacher attendance.

Item 21 (9) was stated as: "When the shared decision-making approach is used in school planning, it improves the chances of accomplishing school goals." The mean response to this item was also "frequently to usually," 3.5, s.d.=.734. Chi-square analysis

did not yield significant differences by position for this item.

Analysis of these data indicated that the respondents felt that shared decision-making would improve the chances of accomplishing school goals. Areas where a greater degree of shared decision-making had been employed in planning were perceived to be somewhat more effective.

PERCEPTIONS REGARDING THE FACTORS THAT ARE MOST IMPORTANT IN DETERMINING THE SUCCESS OF SHARED DECISION-MAKING

Question 4 of the interview addressed this issue with the following question posed to principals, teachers, and parents: "What factors are most important in determining the success of shared decision-making?"

The responses of principals answering this item fell into four categories, group characteristics, leader characteristics, task or mechanics of decision-making, and goal and results orientation and interpretation.

Group characteristics cited by the principals included: harmonious relations amongst the team members, commitment of the group, reputation of the group, good team members, experience of the group, confidence of the group, cohesiveness of the group, fairness of the members, sincerity of the members, objectivity of the members, the personality of the team, the flexibility of the team, the motivation of the team, recognition of each other's abilities, and respect for each other. Nearly one-third of the principals cited the characteristic of commitment. A total of 13.3%, respectively cited, harmonious relations, cohesiveness, recognition of others abilities, respect of others, and motivation of the group.

One leader characteristic was cited by principals. It was stated as "A leader who can build consensus."

Task and mechanics aspects included: consensus building, staying on task, involvement of people in the decision-making, listening to others, agreement on how decisions will be made, task orientation, tackling difficult problems, and consistency in decision-making. A total of 20% of the responses addressed the aspect of consensus building or agreement on how decisions would be made.

Goal and results characteristics included: knowing what the goal is and what to do, sharing results, goal accomplishment, and having a good information base. A total of 20% of the principals noted the importance of knowing the goal and what to do.

One principal stated, "A chairman or leader that can lead to consensus. Staying on task--commitment." Another noted, "Accomplishing goals is important, having harmonious relations, consistency, a willingness to tackle challenging problems. It is important that the group has a good reputation."

Teachers responses could also be categorized into the four areas. Group characteristics that were cited included: commitment of the group, seeing others viewpoints, the desire of the participants to work together, interest of the group, getting along with eachother, no dissention, cooperation of the group, open-minded membership of the group, willingness of the group to change, and non-judgmental membership of the group. A total of 13% of the members cited such aspects as interest, non-biased personnel, and cooperation.

Statements regarding the leader included: having a good facilitator, and having a leader who will guide the group so that the decisions flow smoothly.

Task and mechanics statements focused on consensus building, open discussion, meeting time limits, staying on task, involvement of the group, allowing everyone to have

input, and compromise. A total of 27% of the respondents focused on time--(meeting time-limits). An additional 13% focused respectively on the aspects of consensus and allowing all the opportunity for input.

Goal and results statements included: working towards the same goal, understanding the problem, knowing the objectives, and the ability to see results and analyze. A total of 27% of the respondents addressed working on the same goal, understanding the problem, and knowing the objectives. One teacher stated: "When conclusions are reached within the allotted time, the ability to live with the decisions and put away personal biases for the common good." Another teacher stated, "Work toward the general goal. Have a unified front. Cooperation is important. Input should be from all of the people represented. When the meetings are held at a convenient time and place decision-making is effective. Meeting time limits is very important. The agenda should be set up before time. People should be able to add suggestions or have a suggestion box."

Group characteristics cited by the parents included: dedication of the group, involvement of the group, openness of the group to listening, no biases within the group and cooperation of the group, having the membership show-up for the meetings. A total of 20% of the participants cited dedication of the group, openness of the group to listening, and having a non-biased group.

Task characteristics cited by the parents included: movement towards a purpose, meeting timelines and strategies, focusing on the needs of the students, reaching consensus, active participation, working together, having equal opportunity for all, total input of all, following through on plans, and working together. A total of 20% of the respondents addressed active participation, and cooperative working.

One participant indicated that leadership was important.

Goal and results statements included: having well defined goals, meeting goals and objectives, the impact of decisions--(there must be a positive impact on the students), not losing sight of the goals, and having common goals. A total of 20% indicated not losing sight of the goals.

One parent stated, "When you meet the goals and objectives,.when individuals work together and cooperatively, when the impact on the students is positive, shared decision-making is effective." Another parent stated, where goals are defined and the group does not lose sight of it, when the group does not get off on tangents shared decision-making is effective."

It appeared that principals focused the most on group characteristics. Teachers noted leader qualities more than any other group, but focused on task and goals in the form of time constraints and having common goals. Parents also focused on goals and tasks emphasizing working toward common goals and working together cooperatively.

SUGGESTIONS FOR CHANGE IN THE PLANNING PROCESS

Question 18 of the School Planning Questionnaire requested survey participants to note what they would like to see changed in the planning process. Administrators focused on time. A total of 42.3% of the responses indicated that more time should be allowed and that deadlines were too close. An additional 7.7% felt that the faculty should be formally trained in shared decision-making. A total of 11.5% stated that shared decision-making was working fine.

Teachers also addressed the time issue, a total of 23% indicated that there was not enough time. An additional 12.3% stated that there should be greater involvement of the teachers in the decisional process. A total of 7.7% indicated that there was a need for

improved communication. Other comments addressed the importance of having uninterrupted sessions, less paperwork, less irrelevant discussion, origination of the issues with the teachers, and earlier planning. A total of 21.5% indicated satisfaction with the current process.

A total of 17.6% of the parents indicated problems with time constraints and the need for more time. One parent indicated the need for more money. Another parent noted that they would like to see more parents involved. Parents also noted that planning should be an on-going process and that monitoring was important. A total of 11.8% indicated satisfaction with the current process.

PREDICTORS OF PERCEIVED EFFECTS OF SCHOOL PLANNING

Multiple regression analysis was utilized to address the following issues: prediction of ratings on improved reading, improved mathematics, improved student attendance, and improved teacher attendance. Null hypotheses for these issues are:

H_{011} =Training rating, degree that shared decision-making took place, degree of perceived involvement, degree of perceived influence, and degree of perceived implementation, do not predict the rating on improved reading.

H_{012} =Training rating, degree that shared decision-making took place, degree of perceived involvement, degree of perceived influence, and degree of perceived implementation, do not predict the rating on improved mathematics.

H_{013} =Degree of perceived involvement, degree of perceived influence, degree that shared decision-making took place, and degree of perceived implementation, do not predict the rating on improved student attendance.

H₀₁₄=Degree of perceived involvement, degree of perceived influence, degree that shared decision-making took place, and degree of perceived implementation, do not predict the rating on improved teacher attendance.

The regression tables for H₀₁₁ are presented in the appendix. Items for this analysis came from questions 4R, 5R, 6, 13 (reading training), 15 R, and 14R of the School Planning Questionnaire.

Examination of these data reveals that the regression equation was considered to be a moderately good predictor of the rating on the effectiveness of planning in the improvement of reading. The coefficient of determination was .58. The results of the analysis indicated that of the variables: involvement in the decisions for the improvement of reading, influence in the decisions for the improvement of reading, degree that shared decision-making took place at the school, training in the area of reading, or the extent that decisions were implemented in the area of reading, only two variables significantly predicted the improved reading rating. These variables were the extent that decisions were implemented in the area of reading ($t=3.93$, $p<.000$) and the influence in the decisions for the improvement of reading ($t=3.204$, $p<.002$). The degree of implementation accounted for .38 of the prediction and the degree of influence for .32 of the prediction. The correlation matrix indicated that moderate correlations existed between reading effectiveness rating and degree of involvement, degree of influence, and degree of implementation (.62, .67, and .63, respectively). (Refer to table 22).

Hence, H₀₁₁=Training rating, degree that shared decision-making took place, degree of perceived involvement, degree of perceived influence, and degree of perceived implementation, do not predict the rating on improved reading was rejected for the variables: extent that the decisions were implemented in the area of planning for the

improvement of reading achievement and influence in the decisions for the improvement of reading achievement.

The regression tables for Ho12 are presented in the appendix. Items for this analysis came from questions 4M, 5M, 6, 12 (mathematics training), 15 M, and 14M of the school planning questionnaire.

Examination of these data reveals that this regression equation was also considered to be a moderately good predictor of the rating on the effectiveness of planning in the improvement of mathematics. The coefficient of determination was .67. The results of the analysis indicated that of the variables: involvement in the decisions for the improvement of mathematics, influence in the decisions for the improvement of mathematics, degree that shared decision-making took place at the school, training in the area of mathematics, or the extent that decisions were implemented in the area of mathematics, only two variables significantly predicted the improved mathematics rating. These variables were the extent that decisions were implemented in the area of mathematics ($t=6.15$, $p<.000$) and the influence in the decisions for the improvement of mathematics ($t=2.163$, $p<.032$). The degree of implementation accounted for .56 of the prediction and the degree of influence for .22 of the prediction. The correlation matrix indicated that moderate correlations existed between mathematics effectiveness rating and degree of involvement, degree of influence, and degree of implementation (.66, .64, and .78, respectively). (Refer to table 23)

Hence, H_{O12} =Training rating, degree that shared decision-making took place, degree of perceived involvement, degree of perceived influence, and degree of perceived implementation, do not predict the rating on improved mathematics was rejected for the variables the extent that decisions were implemented for the area of planning for the improvement of mathematics achievement and the degree of influence in the decisions for the area of mathematics achievement.

The regression tables for Ho13 are presented in the appendix. Analysis items came from questions 4SA, 5SA, 6, 15 SA, and 14SA of the School Planning Questionnaire. The coefficient of determination of .62 served as an indicator that this regression equation was a moderately good predictor of the perceived effectiveness in planning for the improvement of student attendance. The results of the analysis indicated that of the variables: involvement in the decisions for the improvement of student attendance, influence in the decisions for the improvement of student attendance, degree that shared decision-making took place at the school, or the extent that decisions were implemented in the area of improving student attendance, only one variable significantly predicted the improved student attendance rating. This variable was the extent that decisions were implemented in the area of improving student attendance ($t=6.64$, $p<.000$). The degree of implementation accounted for .66 of the prediction. The correlation matrix indicated that moderate correlations existed between student attendance effectiveness rating and degree of involvement and degree of influence (.59 and .56, respectively). Degree of implementation had a somewhat higher correlation of .78. (Refer to table 24).

Hence, H_{O13} = Degree of perceived involvement, degree of perceived influence, degree that shared decision-making took place, and degree of perceived implementation, do not predict the rating on improved student attendance was rejected for the variable, the extent that decisions for the improvement of student attendance were implemented.

The regression tables for Ho14 are presented in the appendix. Analysis items came from questions 4TA, 5TA, 6, 15 TA, and 14TA of the School Planning Questionnaire. The coefficient of determination of .67 served as an indicator that this regression equation was a moderately good predictor of the perceived effectiveness in planning for the improvement of teacher attendance. The results of the analysis indicated that of the variables: involvement in the decisions for the improvement of teacher attendance, influence

in the decisions for the improvement of teacher attendance, degree that shared decision-making took place at the school, or the extent that decisions were implemented in the area of improving teacher attendance, only one variable significantly predicted the improved teacher attendance rating. This variable was the extent that decisions were implemented in the area of improving teacher attendance ($t=6.20$, $p<.000$) The degree of implementation accounted for .52 of the prediction. The correlation matrix indicated that moderately high correlations existed between teacher attendance effectiveness rating and degree of involvement, degree of influence, and degree of implementation (.71, .67, and .76, respectively). (Refer to table 25).

Hence, H_{O14} =Degree of perceived involvement, degree of perceived influence, degree that shared decision-making took place, and degree of perceived implementation, do not predict the rating on improved teacher attendance was rejected for the variable, the extent that decisions for the improvement of teacher attendance were implemented.

In summary, the degree to which decisions were implemented served as the best predictor of how effective respondents felt their decisions had been in improving the targeted areas. The degree of training in a particular area for planning was not an adequate predictor of the degree of the perceived effectiveness of planning for improvement in the core areas of reading and mathematics. The degree of perceived influence was also a predictor of the perceived effectiveness of planning for the improvement in the core areas of reading and mathematics. It was not a good predictor for the areas of student attendance and teacher attendance. The degree of perceived involvement and influence on the individual level were more strongly correlated with the perceived effectiveness of planning in the improvement of the targeted areas than the overall degree of shared decision-making at the school.

Part two of this study explored the application of the Hersey-Blanchard model to school planning.

PART 2: APPLICATION OF THE HERSEY-BLANCHARD SITUATIONAL LEADERSHIP THEORY TO LOCAL SCHOOL PLANNING

Two of the Hersey-Blanchard instruments were utilized in this process: The Decision-Making and Problem Solving Inventory and the Readiness Style Match. Theory would predict that schools which applied the model would perceive the decisions to be more effective.

APPLICATION OF THE PROBLEM-SOLVING AND DECISION-MAKING STYLE INVENTORY

1. The responses of the principal and the participants in planning were compared on two instruments: Problem-solving and Decision-making Style Inventory (Perception of Self) and Problem-solving and Decision-making Style Inventory (Perception of Other). Questions emanating from this portion of the study include: What is the principal's primary leadership style with the planning team? What is the principal's secondary leadership style with the planning team? What is the relative emphasis in decisions (leader-made, collaborative, or follower-made decisions)? Does the perception of emphasis vary by position, of the participants? The School Planning Questionnaire was utilized to determine a training rating for the participants. The question of application of the theory was analyzed

in terms of the differences between the group training ratings and the leadership style utilized by the principal.

Descriptive data on these questions were tabulated.

Null hypotheses for the issues are:

H_{015} = There is no difference in the training rating and the leadership style.

H_{016} = There is no difference in the leadership style-match and perceived effectiveness of planning in the area of reading.

H_{017} = There is no difference in the leadership style-match and perceived effectiveness of planning in the area of mathematics.

The Hersey and Natemeyer instruments the Problem-Solving and Decision-making Style Inventory Perception of Self and the Problem-Solving and Decision-making Style Inventory Perception of Other were completed by the school principal and the members of the planning team, respectively. These are parallel instruments that require the respondents to assign three points to twelve pairs of statements that reflect the way the principal (manager) approaches problems and makes decisions. The most points are assigned to the statements in the pairs that are most characteristic of the principal's problem-solving or decision-making styles. Each of the statements reflects one type of style (telling, selling, participating, and delegating). Highest scores represent the principal's primary style and the next highest scores represents the secondary style of problem-solving and decision-making. Forms were completed by the team as well as by the principal to determine the consistency in the perceptions of the principal's problem and decision-making style.

Scores for each of the participants in the study were compiled and analyzed on an overall basis as well as by school. Table 26 below summarizes the overall means for this instrument.

Table 26. Results of the Problem-Solving and Decision-Making Inventory: Means and Standard Deviations

<u>STYLE</u>	<u>MEAN</u>	<u>STANDARD DEVIATION</u>
Telling (Authoritative)	7.489	3.686
Selling (Consultative)	10.298	1.664
Participative (Facilitative)	11.585	2.260
Delegating (Delegative)	6.691	3.315

Examination of these data reveals that the average participant viewed the primary style of the principals as participating (facilitative). The principals' secondary style was viewed as selling (consultative).

Addition of the style scores yields the relative emphases of the decisions: (telling + selling= leader-made decisions), (selling + participating= collaborative decisions), and (participating + delegating= follower-made decisions). Table 23 presents the means and standard deviations for the relative emphasis of decisions.

Table 27. Results of the Problem-Solving and Decision-Making Inventory Relative Emphasis of Decisions: Means and Standard Deviations

<u>STYLE</u>	<u>MEAN</u>	<u>STANDARD DEVIATION</u>
Leader-Made Decisions	17.830	3.826
Collaborative Decisions	21.713	2.906
Follower-Made Decisions	18.287	3.627

Examination of these data reveals that the primary emphasis of the decisions, overall was viewed as being collaborative decisions. Follower-made and leader-made decisions were next in descending order. This would tend to indicate that shared decision-making was the primary strategy employed by these schools in school planning.

A secondary analysis studied the results of this instrument by school. The mean percent of agreement in primary style was .62 with a standard deviation of .31. Hence, somewhat over half of the respondents agreed with their principal's views of the administrator's primary style of decision-making.

A subsequent analysis examined the predominant problem-solving styles by the position composition of the planning teams. Chi-square analysis was utilized to determine the significance of the differences. Differences were found to be not significant. The trends from this examination, however, revealed that the majority of the teams (73.3%) primarily used the collaborative approach. A total of 13.3% of the teams primarily used the follower-made decision approach and 13.3% primarily used the leader-made decision approach. The follower-made decisions were made by teams composed primarily of teachers. The collaborative made decisions were made by teams with a large teacher membership as well as by more balanced teams with over 10% representation from teachers, parents, and administrators. Leader-made decisions were predominantly made by teams composed mainly of administrators and teachers, or by teams composed mainly of parents and teachers.

Chi-square analysis was used to determine if significant differences existed in the decision styles used by the planning teams and the perceived effectiveness of planning for the improvement of reading, mathematics, student attendance, and teacher attendance.

Significant differences were determined only for the effectiveness rating of

mathematics, ($\text{Chi-square}=10.519, p<.03$). Examination of the data revealed that those schools that used the collaborative decision style had a majority of the ratings in the level three ("highly effective" range). Those schools that used the follower-made decision style had the majority of the ratings in the level 2, "somewhat effective" range and schools that primarily used leader-made decisions had half of the effectiveness ratings in the "somewhat effective" range and half of the ratings in the "very highly effective" range.

Questions 12 and 13 of the School Planning Questionnaire were used to determine training ratings in the areas of mathematics and reading. Since the scale ranged from not at all (0) to "very extensively" (4), it was possible to convert the data to a four-point range. The Hersey and Natemeyer instrument stresses the importance of matching the problem solving style to the ability and willingness of the team members. Composite team training scores for the areas of reading and mathematics were determined using the mean team data for each school. Chi-square analysis was then utilized to determine if there were significant differences between the primary decision-making style of the principal and the composite training levels of the teams for mathematics and reading. Differences were found to be not significant. Hence, H_{015} = There is no difference in the training rating and the leadership style could not be rejected.

In the area of mathematics training, trends indicated that the primary styles for level 3 of training in mathematics were follower-decisions and leader-made decisions. The primary style for level 2 of training was collaborative decision-making. The primary style for level one of training in mathematics was collaborative decision-making.

Examination of reading training revealed that the primary decisions from level 4 of training were follower-made decisions. The primary decisions for level three of training were collaborative decisions, and the primary decisions for level two of training were collaboratively made decisions.

Perusal of these data reveals that more principals were using the Hersey and Natemayer model in the matching of decision-styles to readiness in the area of planning for the improvement of reading achievement then for mathematics achievement planning.

Using the training rating scale from the school planning questionnaire and the data compiled from the Hersey and Natemayer instruments, the match of the principal's decision-making style to the teams training in reading and mathematics was determined for each of the schools. The percent of match was rated as 0, 50% or 100% for the areas. Chi-square analysis was utilized to determine significance. Differences were found to be not significant for both the areas of reading and mathematics.

In the area of mathematics, trends indicated that those schools with a 100% match level had a plurality of the respondents (40%) respectively divided between effectiveness levels 2 and 3. The majority of the schools with a 50% match level had an effectiveness rating of (2), "somewhat effective." Those schools with a training-style match rating of 0% had a plurality of the schools (42.9%) with a rating of 3, "highly effective."

In the area of reading, trends indicated that those schools that had a 100% match level also had a majority of the respondents (60%) at effectiveness level 3. The majority of the schools with a 50% match level (83.3%) had an effectiveness rating of (3), "somewhat effective." Those schools with a training-style match rating of 0% had half of the schools with a rating of 3, "highly effective" and half with a rating of 2, "somewhat effective."

A secondary analysis viewed match as a "yes" and "no" issue and separated it for the areas of reading and mathematics. When this chi-square analysis was performed, the differences between those teams that matched training and style was found to be significant for the area of reading (chi-square =.536, $p < .000$). The majority of the schools whose teams rated effectiveness in planning for reading achievement improvement as level 3, highly effective also matched decision-style to training level in reading.

Hence, H_{O16} =There is no difference in the leadership style match and perceived effectiveness of planning in the area of reading was rejected. H_{O17} , there is no difference in the leadership style match and perceived effectiveness of planning in the area of mathematics was not rejected.

APPLICATION OF THE READINESS STYLE-MATCH INVENTORY

The second question of this part of the study examined the Hersey and Blanchard Readiness Style-Match instruments. The following questions served as the foci for analysis.

2. The emphasis of the Hersey-Blanchard Leadership model is on the leader utilizing styles that match the staff member's readiness level (determined by maturity and motivation ratings). In this portion of the study, the principal indicated participants who were key figures in the planning process. The principal rated these participants on their maturity and motivation to work on objectives from the school planning process. Readiness levels were matched against the leadership styles utilized. Planning participants also rated these aspects. Questions from this portion of the study are as follows: Does the principal appear to be matching readiness of the participants to leadership style? Is there consensus between the participants and the principals in planning? Is decision-making perceived to be more effective in the schools where there is a readiness-style match (where the theory is appropriately applied)?

Descriptive data on these questions was tabulated.

Null hypotheses for the issues are:

H_{O18} =There is no difference in the readiness rating of the individuals and the leadership style employed.

H_{019} =There is no difference in the leadership style- readiness match for the reading objective and the rating on improved reading.

H_{020} =There is no difference in the leadership style-readiness match for the mathematics objective and the rating on improved mathematics.

H_{021} =There is no difference in the leadership style-readiness match for the student attendance objective and the rating on improved student attendance.

H_{022} =There is no difference in the leadership style-readiness match for the teacher attendance objective and the rating on improved teacher attendance.

A total of 68 questionnaires were completed by principals and team members identified as key decision-makers in the planning areas of reading, mathematics, student attendance, and teacher attendance. Persons completing the forms indicated the primary and secondary styles utilized by the principal with them in terms of their work on the individual areas: reading, mathematics, student attendance, and teacher attendance. The ability levels and willingness levels of the rated persons were evaluated on the 4-point scale provided by the Hersey, Blanchard, and Keilty instrument for each of the areas. The match between leadership style and readiness were subsequently identified for each individual in each area on the provided grid. Discrepancies in the ratings between style and readiness were noted as well as the degree of agreement between the principal and the team member. Data were then summarized by school.

The overall consensus between principals' and team members' ratings was a mean of 75.6% with a standard deviation of 22.37. This would indicate that team members and principals were in fairly strong agreement about the assessments.

The overall percentage of match between principals' styles and team members' readiness levels was 25.8% with a standard deviation of 33.9. This would indicate a low

accuracy of the match between leadership style and team member readiness according to the Hersey-Blanchard model.

Mean style, readiness, and discrepancy ratings by planning area are presented below in table 28 below.

Table 28. Results of the Readiness Style-Match Inventory: Means and Standard Deviations

<u>AREA</u>	<u>MEAN STYLE</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>MEAN</u> <u>READINESS</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>DISCREPANCY</u> <u>MEAN</u>	<u>SD</u>
READING	3.0	.76	3.8	.36	-.83	.84
MATHEMATICS	3.0	.89	3.7	.41	-.73	.82
STUDENT ATTENDANCE	3.0	.95	3.8	.50	-.75	1.1
TEACHER ATTENDANCE	2.4	.92	3.8	.37	-1.438	.98

Examination of table 28 reveals that the typical principal in the sample used the participating style when working with team members on the reading, mathematics, and student attendance objectives. The selling style was used when working with team members on the teacher attendance objectives. The typical team member, was "a great deal able" and "usually" willing. This would indicate a level 4 of readiness. According to the Hersey and Blanchard model, a delegative leadership style should be used with persons exhibiting a type 4 readiness level. This trend would tend to indicate that, in general, principals were using a more supervisory style than was necessary for persons of these readiness levels. Largest discrepancies occurred in the area of teacher attendance.

Chi-square analysis was used to determine if there was a significant difference between the type of leadership style used and the readiness level of the team members. Chi-square values were only significant in the area of planning for the improvement of mathematics achievement (chi-square=12.571, $p<.05$). Examination of the distribution

revealed that principals tended to use a leadership style of telling and selling when supervising team members with a readiness level of 3.5. The principals used a delegative leadership style when working with a readiness level of 4. Participative styles were used when team members exhibited readiness levels of 3 or 4. Spearman correlation tests yielded a moderate correlation between style of supervision and readiness level for the area of mathematics planning ($\rho=.62, p<.04$).

Hence, H_{018} =There is no difference in the readiness rating of the individuals and the leadership style employed, was rejected for the area of mathematics planning.

The final analysis explored whether or not planning was perceived to be more effective when the Hersey-Blanchard model was employed, ie. when there was a leadership style-readiness match. Chi-square analyses were performed for each of the planning areas using the ratings from item 14 of the School Planning Questionnaire summarized by school and the degree of match discrepancy calculated by school (0 discrepancy would mean that there was a match). None of the chi-square values were found to be significant. Hence, H_{019} =There is no difference in the leadership style-match for the reading objective and the rating on improved reading; H_{020} =There is no difference in the leadership style-match for the mathematics objective and the rating on improved mathematics; H_{021} =There is no difference in the leadership style-match for the student attendance objective and the rating on improved student attendance; and H_{022} =There is no difference in the leadership style-match for the teacher attendance objective and the rating on improved teacher attendance were not rejected.

When match was recoded from the degree of discrepancy to a yes/no item, one area of significance was determined, planning for the improvement of student attendance. The chi-square value was 6.240, $p<.04$. Examination of the contingency table revealed that half of the schools where a match occurred had rated effectiveness as 2, "somewhat" and

half had rated the effectiveness as 4, "very high." Those schools where the model was not employed, rated effectiveness as 3, "highly effective" and 2, "somewhat effective." It is important to note, however, that only two of the schools had used a readiness-leadership match in the planning for this area. This finding enabled the rejection of H_{o21} (H_{o21} =There is no difference in the leadership style-match for the student attendance objective and the rating on improved student attendance).

Since the Readiness-Match instrument is usually utilized as an individual measure, null hypotheses H_{o19} through 22 were also tested using the individual scores and effectiveness ratings for the areas of reading, mathematics, student attendance, and teacher attendance. When chi-square analysis was performed on these data, none of the analyses were found to be significant. Hence on an individual level, H_{o19} =There is no difference in the leadership-style match for the reading objective and the rating on improved reading; H_{o20} =There is no difference in the leadership style-match for the mathematics objective and the rating on improved mathematics; H_{o21} =There is no difference in the leadership style-match for the student attendance objective and the rating on improved student attendance; and H_{o22} =There is no difference in the leadership style-match for the teacher attendance objective and the rating on improved teacher attendance were not rejected.

SUMMARY

Results present an in depth look at the process of shared decision-making in this select sample of urban elementary schools. This section also examined the application of the Hersey-Blanchard model to the process of local school planning in these schools. Chapter V will discuss the findings presented in this section and attempt to tie them to theory and the findings of other researchers.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

INTRODUCTION

In this portion of the paper, the findings from the results will be discussed. Results have little significance unless meaning can be extracted, and as a result of new understanding, hypothesized applications made. This section will be structured into two parts, the description of shared decision-making in selected urban elementary schools, and the application of the Hersey-Blanchard model to school planning and shared decision-making. Discussion will be followed by a listing of the major findings.

DESCRIPTION OF SHARED DECISION-MAKING IN SELECTED URBAN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

The School Planning Questionnaire combined with structured interviews provided insights into the process, dynamics, and perceived outcomes of shared decision-making in these selected urban elementary schools. This section will summarize the findings for each of these three areas of analysis and attempt to explicate them.

DESCRIPTION OF THE SHARED DECISION-MAKING PROCESS

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE PLANNING TEAMS

Questions emanating from this portion of the study include:

1. What is the nature of shared decision-making in these selected urban elementary schools?
 - a) Who participates in the decision-making process at these sites? Characteristics explored include: position, age, sex, educational experience, experience in areas specific to the decisional area, and experience in the process of shared decision-making and planning.

Examination of the data indicated that the majority of the respondents were teachers. Participants were experienced in school planning with a majority holding membership on the local school council (LSC). The respondents to this survey had "a little" training in shared decision-making, and a majority were familiar with the terminology. Those completing the questionnaire also reported being "somewhat" trained in the areas of mathematics and reading.

The typical school planning team had a membership of 7 persons. Membership on the team typically included the principal, the assistant principal, 4 teachers, and a parent. As seen from the overall data, career service personnel and community representatives were also included in some team configurations. Four predominant team configurations emerged. These were as follows: the "Parent Group"- was defined as a team, where membership of the team consisted of at least 50% parents; the "Teacher Group"-was defined as a team, where membership of the team consisted of at least 50% teachers; the "Administrator-Teacher Group" was defined as a team where 50% of the membership was

constituted by teachers and administrators ; and the "Administrator-Teacher-Parent Group"- where membership consisted of 50% teachers with the remaining 50% divided between parents and administrators.

Significant differences between the positions, as determined by chi-square analysis, existed for the variables of age, sex, local school council (LSC) membership, education, years of experience at the school (school staff only), and whether or not team members were planning in areas where they had experience.

Assistant principals were the oldest, followed by principals and teachers. Career service, community representatives, and parents tended to be younger.

The majority of the principals were male, while the majority of the remaining team members were female.

Principals tended to have hours past a Master's degree; the majority of teachers and assistant principals had Master's degrees, the plurality of the parents had high school diplomas, and the plurality of community representatives and career service personnel had Bachelor's degrees.

The respondents also differed significantly by their years of experience at the school. (This item applied to school personnel only). Principals typically indicated experience in their job of 5-8 years; assistant principals reported 21-24 years; teachers marked 25-28 years of experience; and career service personnel reported 1-4 years of experience. Teachers and career service personnel were not members; and the majority of the parents and community representatives were members of the LSC.

Matching of the planners to their area of expertise existed for the teacher, assistant principal, and principal respondents, but did not exist for the majority of the parent, career service personnel, and community representative respondents.

Administrators and teachers were much more familiar with the terms, "shared

decision-making" and "participative management" than were parents (administrators: 100%, teachers: 95.7%, and parents: 68.8%).

For the area of mathematics, administrators and teachers fell in the "somewhat" range of training, while parents fell in the "not at all" range. In the area of reading, administrators fell in the "a great deal of training" range, while teachers responses were in the "somewhat" range and parents fell in the "not at all" range.

The demographic data on the sample appeared to be consistent with what would be expected and traditional views of educational structure. The membership qualifications for the LSC dictate that the principal must be a member and that the weight of the other membership is with the parents. Since more courses are required for certification in administration, it is not unusual that principals would have the highest mean education levels. Since teachers and school administrators had been trained in education, it was not surprising that they would be more consistently matched in terms of expertise to planning area. Furthermore, it was also not unusual that they would have greater familiarity with shared decision-making, since teachers had been involved in the recent past in school planning efforts. The breakdown by sex is consistent with the demographics of the Chicago public school system. The fact that principals had an average of 4.5 years of experience, was somewhat unusual, but explainable by the fact that with the advent of Reform and the mandatory review process, a number of older, more experienced principals had left the school system.

EXAMINATION OF PARTICIPATION IN SHARED DECISION-MAKING

The second research question examined the planning process. Items on the

questionnaire focused on planning areas, stages of decision-making and forms of participation. This section examined the following questions and hypotheses.

- b) What role do these individuals play in the decisional process? What role do these individuals wish to play?

The null hypotheses for this segment of the study were:

H_{01} =There is no difference between the amount persons want to participate and the amount that they do participate.

H_{02} =There is no difference in the amount they participate based on position.

H_{03} =There is no difference in the amount they participate based on training rating (reading and mathematics objectives only).

H_{04} =There is no difference in the amount they wish to participate based on position.

H_{05} =There is no difference in the amount they wish to participate based on training rating (reading and mathematics objectives only).

Null hypothesis one was rejected for the areas of: teacher attendance, school budget, textbook selection, student discipline, allocation of staff, determining instructional methods, determining the format of reports, staff development, determining staff roles and responsibilities, school climate, school beautification, and teacher schedules. Chi-square analysis determined that there were differences in the amount that persons wanted to participate and the amount that they did participate in these areas.

Examination of this list revealed that many of the areas noted as having significant differences between the amount that persons participated and the amount that they wanted to participate included areas of planning where decisions were traditionally made by administrators (allocation of staff, school budget, determining format of school reports, determining staff roles and responsibilities, teacher schedules, teacher attendance, staff

development, school climate and school beautification and maintenance). Areas traditionally a focus for teachers included: determining instructional methods, textbook selection, staff development, school beautification and maintenance, and school climate. Overall, it was determined that the respondents desired more participation as a part of a group in all of the areas cited as significantly different. The exception was the area of school budget, where a great deal of shared decision-making took place. Slightly over half still wished to participate in this manner, but this value was lower than the percent that were participating in this fashion. It was noted, however, that more people wanted to recommend and gather or provide information than currently were participating by these means for the area of school budget.

Ho2 and Ho4 determined if these discrepancies existed by position. Ho2=There is no difference in the amount they participate based on position, was rejected for the areas of: student attendance, teacher attendance, textbook and instructional materials selection, student discipline issues, allocation of teachers and other school staff, determining the instructional objectives for the students at the site, planning for school beautification, establishing teaching schedules and evaluating school personnel.

A greater percentage of administrators made decisions alone than any other group (means were: 10.3%-administrators, 1.4%-teachers and 0%-parents). The greatest percentage of administrators made decisions alone in the areas of evaluating school personnel and the allocation of teachers and other staff. The largest percentage of teachers made decisions alone in the area of determining the instructional methods to be used with students.

Making the decision as a part of the group occurred for the greatest number of parents in the areas of school budget, planning for school beautification and maintenance, and determination of staff development programs. It occurred most frequently for teachers in

the areas of improving student attendance, improving teacher attendance, planning for the improvement of school climate and textbook and materials selection. Administrators made decisions as a part of a group in all areas with the exception of the evaluation of school personnel, where they made decisions alone.

The least amount of parent participation in decision-making occurred in establishing teaching schedules, improving teacher attendance, and evaluating school personnel. Teachers participated the least, overall, in the areas of evaluation of school personnel and the allocation of teachers or other school staff.

Ho4=There is no difference in the amount they wish to participate based on position, was rejected for the areas of: textbook and/or instructional materials selection, student discipline issues, allocation of teachers and other school staff, determining instructional methods to be used with students, determining the format for school reports on student progress, determining staff development programs, and planning for school beautification or maintenance.

Administrators and teachers wanted to make more decisions alone than did parents (means were 2.4%-administrators and teachers compared with .3% for parents). The highest percentage of administrators wanted to make decisions alone in the areas of: evaluating school personnel and allocation of teachers and other school staff. The highest percentage of teachers wanted to make decisions alone in the areas of determining the instructional methods to be used with students and determining the instructional objectives for students at the site. A total of 5.3% of the parents wished to make decisions alone in the area of determining the instructional methods to use with the students.

The greatest percentage of parents wanted to participate as a group in the areas of planning for the improvement of student attendance, planning for the improvement of mathematics achievement, student discipline issues, planning for the improvement of

school climate and determining the instructional objectives for students. The greatest percentage of teachers wanted to participate as a group in the areas of: planning for school beautification or maintenance and planning for the improvement of school climate.

Administrators desired the least group participation in the area of evaluation of school personnel. Teachers wanted the least group participation in the areas of evaluation of school personnel, allocation of teachers and other staff, and determining the instructional methods to be used with the students (35.9% wanted to make the decision as a part of the group, but 25.6% wanted to make the decision alone). Parents wanted the least participation in the areas of planning for the improvement of teacher attendance and establishing teaching schedules.

The largest percentage of respondents, overall, who did not want to participate were parents (means were: 18.5%-parents, 10.8%-teachers, and 8.4%-administrators). The largest percentages of parents did not want to participate in the areas of: planning for the improvement of teacher attendance, evaluation of school personnel, determining the format of school reports on student progress and the allocation of teachers and other school staff. The largest percentage of teachers did not want to participate in the areas of: evaluation of school personnel and allocation of teachers or other school staff. The largest percentage of administrators did not want to participate in the area of determining the instructional methods to be used with the students.

Examination of these findings revealed that teachers and administrators felt that certain areas should remain the exclusive domain of the administrator: evaluation of school personnel and the allocation of teachers and other staff. Teachers and administrators also appeared to be in agreement that determining instructional methods to be used with students should be the exclusive domain of the teacher. Parents wanted to be involved in all areas

with the exception of areas perceived to be exclusively teacher centered issues: planning for the improvement of teacher attendance and the allocation of teachers and other school staff. They also seemed somewhat reluctant to participate in areas that were deemed to be the exclusive domain of the administrators: teacher attendance, evaluation of school personnel, determining the format of school reports on student progress and the allocation of teachers and other school staff. While mixed feelings were expressed, it appeared that some parents wanted greater input into the planning of instructional methods and objectives. These data were corroborated by the interviews.

Theory and past research provide insight into these findings. Ho (1982) identified three decision-making zones in public elementary schools: the managerial zone, the technical zone and the professional zone. These can further be translated into the principal zone, the teacher zone and the conflict zone.

Hanson and Brown identified managerial and instructional zones. In this model, administrators made decisions in the areas of budgeting, student restriction, classified employment, etc. Teachers made decisions regarding teacher-learning environment, student evaluation, textbook selection, instructional activities, curriculum content, etc. The Hanson and Brown theory posits that when conflicts arise between the zones, teachers and administrators must integrate and share decisions to resolve the problem. Examination of these data reveals that the managerial and instructional zones are very much in tact, as evidenced in this sample of urban elementary schools. As parents enter the decision-making process and desire greater decisional power, it is clear that conflicts could arise. These authors would advocate shared decision-making to bridge the conflict.

Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1957) in their Theory of the Zone of Indifference postulate that when the context of the decision-making is of little or no concern to the teacher (when it is in the zone of indifference), a more task oriented approach from the

leader is appropriate. As the focus of decision-making approximates those areas that most directly impact on the teacher, the zone of indifference is likely to decrease. This theory has relevance to the findings of the study. It would appear that teachers and parents are in agreement that evaluation of school personnel, the allocation of staff, and teacher schedules should be determined by the administrator. Teachers want to participate in the areas of text selection, student discipline, determining instructional methods, planning for reading achievement, planning for improved student attendance, planning for school beautification, planning for the improvement of school climate, planning for staff development, and determining the instructional objectives for the students at the site. These are areas that they have received training in for the most part and are of direct interest to them. On the other hand, parents had the least desire overall, to participate in the decisions. They particularly did not wish to participate in decisions about teacher attendance, evaluation of school personnel, determining teaching schedules, planning for school beautification or maintenance, staff development, determining the format for school reports on student process, determining the allocation of staff and selection of materials. They wanted to participate the most in the area of determining the instructional methods to be used with the students. This would appear to be an area where motivation would exist for shared decision-making. Administrators wanted to participate in nearly all areas. The one area cited by nearly one-third of the administrators for non-participation was determining the instructional methods to be used with the students. It appeared that they perceived this to be the teacher's domain. Tannenbaum and Schmidt would advocate participation by these persons in the areas of interest.

Nearly one-third of the administrators cited the area of determining the instructional methods to be used with the students for non-participation. It appeared that they perceived this to be the teacher's domain. This appeared contrary to current views of educational

leadership emphasizing the administrator's role as the instructional leader at the school. It is hypothesized that the technical demands on the principalship (paperwork, meeting timelines, working with broader constituencies) may have limited the time that principals have to devote to this area. They may, therefore, be abdicating this role to the teacher.

Vargas (1986) studied participative management among selected Los Angeles county elementary school principals. Her study focused on the determination of the elementary school principals' familiarity with participative management, their actual use of participative management, their willingness to use participative management and deterrents to its use. She concluded that elementary school principals in Los Angeles county were familiar with the concept of participative decision-making. They used and were willing to use team decision-making in many decisional areas faced in the school, but reserved staff assignments, hiring new personnel, and developing the annual budget as domains where they alone decided or at a minimum were willing to consult with teachers before deciding. The principal's actual use and willingness to use participative decision-making were closely related.

Vargas' findings were similar to those of this study in several areas. A mean of 92.4% of the surveyed participants indicated that they were familiar with the terms "shared decision-making" or "participative management." Principals were willing to use shared decision-making in all areas, but less willing to use it in the areas of evaluation of school personnel and establishing teaching schedules. In contrast to the Vargas study, budget was targeted by administrators and parents as an area for shared decision-making. It was not targeted by teachers.

Erdeljac (1984) cites Bartunek and Keys (1979) in noting that teachers want to participate when their input contributes to positive decisions, but that when teachers have

trust in the administration to formulate decisions in their favor, they want little participation in the decision-making process. Hence, the finding that the participants in this study wanted the administrators to make decisions regarding staff evaluation, staff allocation, determination of teaching schedules, planning for the improvement of teacher attendance is not unusual.

The finding that in general, teacher and parent respondents to this survey wanted greater involvement in shared decision-making is also supported by previous research. Robinson (1976) highlights four major findings from studies of teacher participation in school decision-making: 1) Teachers' preferred level of involvement in school decision-making is greater than their actual level of involvement, in most cases. 2) Teachers' desires for participation in decision-making vary from decisional area to decisional area. 3) Increased teacher involvement in school decision-making produces positive consequences both for the individual teacher (e.g. higher level of job satisfaction) and for the school organization (e.g. increased innovativeness). 4) The desire for involvement in decision-making on the part of teachers is related to certain personal and positional characteristics of teachers.⁴⁸

Sheely (1970) reported the following regarding teacher participation in shared decision-making:

- 1) The amount of participation, as perceived by teachers, is not commensurate with the amount of participation desired. In most cases there are but two or three areas out of a total of eleven to twenty-five where actual and desired

⁴⁸Norman Robinson, "Patterns of Participatory Management in Schools," Paper presented at the Annual Conference of the Canadian Association for the Study of Educational Administration (Quebec City, Quebec; June 1976), p.8.

participation are similar and in most cases the difference is ten percent or more.

- 2) When data from board members, administrators, and teachers regarding the level of participation are compared, it is found that board members and administrators consistently perceive a higher level of teacher participation than do teachers themselves.
- 3) Teachers generally recommend that participation should be increased greatly.
- 4) Both administrators and teachers are in agreement that full teacher participation exists to the greatest extent in these areas: grievances, teacher welfare, application of curriculum, assembly programs, and textbook selection.
- 5) Teachers indicate only a mild interests in participating in these areas: transportation, census, cafeteria, attendance, supervision of instruction, operation and maintenance of school buildings, and financial security, purchasing and storage and delivery.⁴⁹

Ho3 and Ho5 addressed the methods of participation and the desired methods for participation in the areas of reading and mathematics planning based on training rating. Ho3=There is no difference in the amount they participate based on training rating (reading and mathematics objectives only) was rejected for the area of mathematics. Ho5=There is no difference in the amount they wish to participate based on training rating (reading and mathematics objectives only) was not rejected.

Findings from the School Planning Questionnaire and the interviews indicated that parents, community representatives, and career service personnel had little training in the areas of reading and mathematics instruction. The parents, however, emphasized that

⁴⁹Richard L. Sheely, An analysis of Staff Participation in Policy Formulation. (Ed.D. dissertation, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1970), pp. 53-54.

formal training was not necessary to be an effective planner. The finding that there was no difference in the amount that people wanted to participate based on training was hence, corroborated through interview. The amount of actual participation in planning for the improvement of mathematics achievement did vary by the amount of mathematics training indicated by the survey participants. It was noted that those persons with "little" or "no" training made the decision as a part of the group or did not participate in decision-making. Those persons with "a great deal of training" or "extensive" training participated as a part of the group, but also recommended decisions, suggested alternatives, and gathered information. None of the people indicating that they had "extensive training" made the decisions alone. It appeared that in the area of mathematics, training was considered by the principal in the formation of the planning teams. This could have been related to the fact that as a group, expertise in reading was more prevalent. Being more familiar with the reading needs and how to remediate problems, the principal's team assignments might have been less directly tied to expertise in the area of reading, sensing that there would be enough expertise with his/her membership on the team.

PARTICIPATION CRITERIA

Questions relevant to participant determination were addressed in interviews with 45 individuals from each of the 15 schools. Those interviewed represented each position type: administrator, teacher and parent. The focus of the research questions in this portion of the study were:

- c) Which criteria seem to most strongly influence the degree of participation? How do perceptions differ on the criteria that should

be used to determine participation? Is there a relationship between differing perceptions and position?

The null hypothesis for this segment of the study was:

H_{06} = There is no difference in selection criteria based on position.

The sixth null hypothesis was rejected for the criteria: lack of bias, good human relations skills, responsibility, and knowledge of the school. Teachers cited lack of bias, good human relations skills, and responsibility as important characteristics. None of the administrators cited lack of bias or good human relations skills. Parents felt that knowledge of the school was the most important quality. Other important qualities cited by parents included, interest in the school, experience, commitment and willingness to participate. Administrators focused on ability, training, expertise and willingness. It appeared that principals were most concerned about ability. Parents were most interested in commitment to the school, and teachers were most concerned about lack of bias, responsibility and human relations skills. The findings for administrators are not surprising, since as persons with training, it would seem likely that they would value this trait. The attributes that parents would most likely bring would be in the area of interest in the school and human relations. While the qualities cited by teachers are all significant, it was somewhat surprising that more teachers did not emphasize expertise.

The second interview question explored this aspect in greater depth. It queried participants regarding considerations in matching decision-making to issues. These data corroborated the findings from null hypotheses 1-5. Principals indicated that curriculum, instruction, textbooks and materials, school policy matters, and discipline were areas for teacher involvement in shared decision-making. Principals had more varied opinions regarding the participation of parents. Nearly half of the principals indicated curriculum

planning, discipline, school budget and finances as areas for parent involvement. Nearly 20% indicated that parents should be involved in all matters that pertained to them. Principals specified that parents should not be involved in personnel matters. Teachers agreed with the principals views on the involvement of teachers in the decisions pertaining to curriculum. The majority of the teachers indicated that curriculum, technical aspects of teaching, academic areas and areas relevant to their subject should be decisional domains for teachers. Teachers felt that parents should focus on the educational needs of their child. In this capacity, 20% of the teachers indicated that parents should be concerned with discipline and curriculum. Teachers indicated that parents should not be involved in staff evaluations. Parents agreed that they should not be involved in teacher reviews, discipline of individual students, or teacher selection. A plurality of the parents indicated that they should be involved in all other areas.

THE DEGREE TO WHICH SHARED DECISION-MAKING TOOK PLACE: PERCEIVED INVOLVEMENT AND INFLUENCE

The next area of the study focused on how people were involved in the planning' process and the description of that process. The questions included:

- d) To what degree does shared decision-making take place? Who participates? How often do they participate? Who controls the agenda? How much involvement is perceived? How much influence do persons perceive they have in the decisions? In how many stages of decision-making are persons involved?

Null hypotheses for the issues of degree of involvement and influence were:

H_{07} = There is no difference in the degree of involvement based on position.

H_{08} =There is no difference in the degree of involvement based on training rating (mathematics and reading objectives only).

H_{09} =There is no difference in the degree of influence based on position.

H_{010} =There is no difference in the degree of influence based on training rating (mathematics and reading only).

Question two from the School Planning Questionnaire indicated that the greatest involvement by position was in the area of student attendance. Principals, however, were most involved in planning for the improvement of teacher attendance. Principals "usually to always" participated in all areas of planning. Teachers were the next most frequent participants in school planning. Their participation means also fell in the "usually to always" range. Parents participated less frequently than principals or teachers. Their participation level fell in the "seldom to usually" range. Participation by parents was most frequently noted in the area of student attendance, where means centered around the "usually" range. Community representatives participated in the "seldom to usually range." Participation occurred seldomly in the areas of teacher attendance and mathematics. Career service personnel participated the least in the planning process. Their participation fell in the "seldom" range. Chi-square analysis revealed some discrepancies on the perceived amount of participation by career service personnel and teachers. The low representation of career service personnel in the survey could account for differing views on their participation level. Since parents were seldom participants in the planning for improvement of teacher attendance, their perceptions regarding this area, might differ from those of administrators and teachers. This would point to a need for better communication to the constituents regarding planning team membership. It is also evident that while reform advocates parent involvement in planning, this might not have taken place to the extent

desired. It appeared that the parents were most involved in the area that did not require specialized training, student attendance.

It was noted in items 14, 15, and 16 that the majority of the respondents had participated in 15 of the 17 (88.2%) planning areas. The form of decision-making most often selected as descriptive of their participative role was "make the decision as a part of the group."

Items 6 and 7 of the School Planning Questionnaire requested that participants in the study indicate their perception of the degree to which shared decision-making took place at the school and the extent to which the plans were communicated across all levels of the school. The mean rating was 3.2 on the five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 0 to 4, for the item regarding the degree to which shared decision-making took place at the school. This would indicate that a "moderately high" degree of shared decision-making took place as perceived by the respondents. Participants in the study indicated that the plans were communicated across all levels of the school to a "moderately high" degree as well (mean 3.2).

The plurality of the respondents (43.6%) indicated that the agenda for planning was usually set by the planning team consisting of (principal, teachers, career service, parents, and community representatives). Analysis of when planning took place and how frequently it took place revealed that the planning meetings occurred on a regular on-going basis throughout the year, but that by the end of the year, under half of the respondents were still planning. The majority of the survey respondents indicated that they met weekly or monthly. The results of this analysis provide support that shared decision-making was taking place in planning and that planning was viewed as a cyclical activity (not a one-shot event).

Items four and five of the School Planning Questionnaire asked respondents to rate the degree of their involvement and perceived influence in school planning on a five-point Likert-type scale with 0 equated to "no involvement/influence" and 4 equivalent to "high involvement/influence." Examination of the data revealed that overall, involvement was closely related to perceived influence. The degree of involvement was slightly higher than the degree of influence. The degree of involvement was highest for the areas of student attendance and reading and lowest for the area of teacher attendance. The degree of influence was highest for reading, and least for the area of teacher attendance. Given the previous findings, that teacher attendance planning was usually more administratively oriented, this finding is not surprising.

Analysis of the degree of involvement and influence by position resulted in the rejection of null hypotheses 7 and 9. Ho7, there is no difference in degree of involvement based on position was rejected for the planning areas of reading, student attendance, and teacher attendance. Ho9, there is no difference in the degree of influence based on position was rejected for the areas of student attendance and teacher attendance.

Examination of the differences by position, revealed that a large percentage of administrators, 73.9%, indicated that they had a high degree of involvement in the decisions about reading. One-third of the teachers were involved in this area to a high degree, and 15.4% of the parents had a high degree of involvement.

In the area of student attendance, the majority of the administrators, 75%, had a high level of involvement in the decisions, while one-third of the parents had a high level of involvement and one-quarter of the teachers had a high degree of involvement.

In the area of teacher attendance, 61% of the administrators had a high degree of involvement, compared to 22% of the teachers and 17% of the parents.

In terms of influence, over half of the administrators indicated a high degree of

influence in the area of student attendance. One-quarter of the parents and one-fifth of the teachers perceived that their degree of influence was high.

In the area of teacher attendance, over half of the administrators indicated a high degree of influence, while 18% of the parents and 16% of the teachers indicated a high degree of influence.

Perceived differences in involvement and influence were understandable for the area of teacher attendance, since previous data had indicated that this area of planning was perceived to be an administrative domain. The findings of this portion of the analysis provided support that the primary responsibility for planning was still in the hands of the administrator. It was also not surprising that the parents had slightly more influence in the area of student attendance, then did teachers, since they exert a great deal of control in this area. The administrators concern for expertise in the configuration of planning teams would provide support to the finding that teachers had a greater degree of involvement in planning for core subject areas such as reading than did parents. While this trend existed in the area of mathematics, the differences were not significant.

It appeared from these data that the degree of involvement in decisions and the degree of influence in decisions were related. Spearman correlations testing the degree of correlation between the degree of influence and the degree of involvement for the planning areas of reading, mathematics, student attendance, and teacher attendance confirmed this hypothesis. The values of over .80 with $p < .000$ represented a strong positive correlation.

In examining the degree of involvement and influence based on training rating for the areas of reading and mathematics, H_{o8} , there is no difference in the degree of involvement based on training rating (mathematics and reading objectives only), and H_{o10} , there is no difference in the degree of influence based on training rating (mathematics and reading objectives only) were rejected for all areas considered.

In general, the findings indicated that those persons with higher training levels in reading had greater involvement and more perceived influence in the decisions for improvement of reading achievement. In general, those persons with the highest levels of training in mathematics had the most involvement in planning for the improvement of the mathematics objective. While the degree of perceived influence in planning for the improvement of mathematics by training level was less clear, it was concluded that those persons perceived as having the least amount of influence also had the least amount of training. These data provide support that planning teams for the core areas were established with expertise being a prime consideration.

In the Stuckwisch (1986) study, the relationship between participatory decision-making and teacher perceptions of influence were examined. Teacher participation in decision-making occurred most frequently in the instructional authority domain and least in the managerial area. Teacher participation was found to be positively correlated to the level of influence. This examination of involvement and influence concurs with these findings.

The phases of involvement in decision-making compared to the phases of first involvement in decision-making were also explored in this study. Stuckwisch's five stages of decision-making served as the guide to analysis: 1. Originating the issue, 2. Establishing guidelines for the resolution of the issue, 3. Gathering information, 4. Determining possible solutions, and 5. Choosing the solution. Analysis of the data revealed that the plurality of the respondents were involved in the fourth stage of decision-making, determining possible solutions (over 50%, with the exception of teacher attendance, 43.4%). Over 40% were also involved at the third stage, gathering information for the planning areas of reading, mathematics and student attendance. In the area of teacher attendance, the plurality indicated involvement at stages 4, determining possible

solutions and 5, choosing the solution.

Comparing these findings to the stages of first involvement, it was noted that the plurality first became involved at stages 3 and 4. Over 40% indicated that they first became involved in the gathering information phase for the areas of reading, mathematics, and student attendance. About one-third indicated gathering of information as the stage of first involvement for the area of teacher attendance.

Differences between the area of teacher attendance and other planning areas cited is not surprising, considering that the principal was the person most involved with the planning of the teacher attendance improvement plan. Once again, the greatest degree of involvement was in the areas of reading and student attendance, with the least involvement in the area of planning for the improvement of teacher attendance. Chi-square analysis revealed greater involvement by administrators at earlier stages for the area of planning for the improvement of teacher attendance. A total of 45.8% of the administrators were first involved with this issue at stage 2, establishing guidelines for the resolution of the problem compared to 22.9% of the teachers and 6.7% of the parents. Since the administrator receives the planning mandates first, this is not surprising.

WHAT ARE THE DYNAMICS OF THE PROCESS OF SHARED DECISION-MAKING?

- 2) How do participants react when the decision reached is contrary to their view? How does this vary by position? What influences participants the most in reaching a decision?

These data were determined by interviews. The plurality of the principals indicated that if a shared decision was reached contrary to their view, they would go along with the

consensus, unless it was illegal or dangerous. A total of 26.7%, indicated that they would overrule the decision or not implement it. Teachers indicated that they would cooperate or modify their views. A total of 60% of the parents indicated that they would go along with whatever was decided by the group.

In exploring what influenced them the most in reaching a decision: the number of people supporting the idea, the level of expertise of the persons supporting the idea, or the idea itself, as they saw it, the plurality of the principals indicated that it was the idea itself, as they saw it. Teachers used more approach combinations. They appeared to focus on the expertise of those supporting the idea and the idea itself, as they saw it. Parents used a similar configuration. It was noted however, that 6.7% of the administrators felt that the number of persons supporting the idea was an important factor, compared to 13.3% of the teachers, and 26.7% of the parents. The administrators were more likely to chose single factors. One could conclude from this that parents were more likely to be swayed by public opinion and that administrators tended to depend more on their own convictions. Since administrators have traditionally controlled the power in planning and are held responsible for the plans, it is not surprising that they would be less likely to be swayed by the opinions of the group.

Questions and findings regarding the perceived outcomes of shared decision-making follow.

WHAT ARE THE PERCEIVED OUTCOMES OF SHARED DECISION-MAKING?

- 3) What are the perceived effects of shared decision-making in the areas of: improvement of the school, improvement of the school's

objectives, benefits to participants, time constraints, communication, staff motivation, staff morale, and unexpected outcomes? Do the factors of training rating, degree that shared decision-making took place, degree of perceived involvement, degree of perceived influence or degree of perceived implementation of the decision, predict the perceived effectness of planning areas?

Null hypotheses for these issues were:

H_{O11} =Training rating, degree that shared decision-making took place, degree of perceived implementation, degree of perceived involvement, or degree of perceived influence do not predict the rating on improved reading.

H_{O12} =Training rating, degree that shared decision-making took place, degree of perceived implementation, degree of perceived involvement, or degree of perceived influence do not predict the rating on improved mathematics.

H_{O13} =Degree of perceived involvement, degree of perceived influence, degree of perceived implementation, or degree that shared decision-making took place, do not predict the rating on improved student attendance.

H_{O14} =Degree of perceived involvement, degree of perceived influence, degree of perceived implementation, or degree that shared decision-making took place, do not predict the rating on improved teacher attendance.

The School Planning Questionnaire supplemented by interviews provided the answers to these questions.

Survey participants indicated that shared decision-making was helpful to them as individuals to a "moderately high" degree. Respondents felt that decisions in the areas of reading and student attendance had a "high" effect on them personally, while the decisions

about mathematics and teacher attendance had "some" effect. This was not unusual since, the greatest involvement in planning occurred in the areas of reading and student attendance. It is also conceivable that parents would perceive that planning for the improvement of teacher attendance would have less of an effect on them personally. This was confirmed by the analysis of perceived effects on the individual by position. The majority of the administrators and the plurality of the teachers indicated that the decisions for the area of student attendance and teacher attendance had a "very high" effect on them personally. In contrast, the plurality of the parents indicated that the decisions about student attendance had "some" effect on them personally and the decisions about teacher attendance had "some" or "no" effect.

In a related item, surveyed participants reported that participation in the areas of reading, mathematics, and student attendance had been of "some to high" importance, while participation in the decisions about teacher attendance were of "little to some" importance. Breakdown by position indicated that once again, the administrators and teachers felt that planning in the areas of student attendance and teacher attendance were "highly important," but that the plurality of the parents felt that planning for the improvement of teacher attendance was of "no importance."

These findings would have implications for decisional domains. Since parents feel that decision-making in the area of teacher attendance is of little importance, and they do not desire participation, it would seem that there is less need for parent involvement in this area.

Surveyed participants also rated the perceived effects of planning for the improvement of the targeted areas of reading, mathematics, student attendance, and teacher attendance. Results indicated that the participants felt that the decisions had a "high effect" on the school, with more positive effects noted in the areas of reading and mathematics. Overall

effectiveness was judged to be "high" for the areas of reading, mathematics, and student attendance, and "somewhat" effective for the area of teacher attendance. They also reported that the decisions had a "high effect" on improving the areas of reading, mathematics, and student attendance, overall. The area of planning for the improvement of teacher attendance was judged to be "somewhat effective." The respondents noted that the decisions had been carried out to a "high" degree and that they were highly satisfied with all decisions.

Follow-up analyses confirmed that the perceived effectiveness of planning was moderately correlated to the perceived degree of decision implementation. Neidt (1987) focused on the factors contributing to teacher satisfaction with shared decision-making at the high school level. The correlation between the perceived effectiveness of the decisions for the areas of planning for the improvement of reading achievement, planning for the improvement of mathematics achievement, planning for the improvement of student attendance, and planning for the improvement of teacher attendance with the degree of perceived implementation from this study, are in agreement with Neidt's findings.

Open-ended questions queried survey participants regarding the benefits of participation in shared decision-making as related to school planning. About 40% of the administrators' responses indicated that shared decision-making resulted in increased support and commitment for the decisions from parents and faculty. An additional 12.5% focused on deriving a greater sense of self-worth from participation in the shared decision-making experience. Teachers focused on having a better understanding of the school and its needs, but also commented on the improved cooperation and commitment from staff and the diversity of ideas obtained from this process. Parents emphasized that they learned more about the school and its needs.

A related item addressed unexpected outcomes from participation in shared decision-making as related to school planning. Administrators cited increased faculty morale,

improved participation and cooperation from the faculty, and a greater appreciation of the process. Teachers focused on achieving a better understanding of how colleagues and parents viewed the school, improved group cohesiveness, the ability to use shared decision-making in other areas besides planning, a better feeling about the school and themselves, learning more about the goals and expectations of other grades, and hearing other points of view. Parents noted that there was more motivation for success, a greater appreciation of the school staff, their commitment and knowledge, and improved communication.

These findings are in agreement with other researchers. Griffiths (1977), Sparkes (1981), Snyder (1983) cite the improved quality of the decisions as a benefit of shared decision-making. Improved climate and teacher morale are among the benefits cited by: Griffiths (1977) and Hoy and Miskel (1982). Other researchers also report a feeling of ownership among the decision-making participants, and better acceptance of the decisions: Sparkes (1981) and Hoy and Miskel (1982).

The School Planning Questionnaire and interviews explored perceptions regarding, time, training, staff relations, motivation, morale, communication, effects on the principal, effects on the teacher and effects on school goals when shared decision-making is employed in school planning.

Respondents indicated on both the structured and open-ended items that occasionally too much time is spent in the decision-making process. While responses did not differ significantly by position, follow-up analysis of the open-ended items revealed that teachers and administrators were more concerned with time issues than parents. A total of 42% of the administrators indicated that more time should be allowed, 23% of the teachers felt that there was not enough time, while 18% of the parents felt that more time was needed.

Disadvantages of shared decision-making in the literature focus on increased time demands and risk of disfavor among colleagues, Duke et. al. (1980) and Strauss (1964).

Training is another issue that is raised in the application of shared decision-making to school planning. The School Planning Questionnaire revealed that the majority of the respondents had received either no training or little training in the shared decision-making process. Principals indicated that they had taken graduate courses, read professional journals, attended workshops, and were enrolled in graduate coursework. Teachers focused on similar training experiences. Parents reported experience as a manager, management training, some college coursework, and PTA workshops. Responses on the School Planning Questionnaire indicated that participants in the study felt that training should occur frequently for shared decision-making. Nearly half of the administrators and teachers indicated that this should "usually" or "always" happen, while the parents felt that it should "occasionally" happen. Follow-up interview questions revealed that all of the interviewed parents felt that training was necessary. Over 80% of the administrators and teachers concurred. In describing the proposed training, administrators and teachers appeared to be more concerned about the expertise of the trainer than were the parents. Parents and teachers focused on using an internship as a method of training. Content suggestions addressed understanding the school plan, its goals and objectives, committee procedure, school organization and law, consensus building, guidelines for decision-making, leadership training, development of group process skills, financial analysis of the budget, and roles and responsibilities.

Blumberg (1969) reports that participative decision-making can result in role confusion and conflict for both principals and teachers. Problems may also arise if

participants are not prepared for the new tasks required through training.⁵⁰

Vargas' (1986) study of participative management among selected Los Angeles county elementary school principals reported that the lack of staff training was the reason cited most frequently as the deterrent to the utilization of this process.

Wallace, Radvak-Shovlin, Piscolith and LeMahieu (1990) in commenting on the implementation of shared decision-making also focus on training. They advocate using the Joyce and Showers (1987) research on staff development. They note that learners should practice, receive feedback, and coaching to insure effective utilization of the process.

Improved staff relationships, morale and motivation have been cited in the research literature as positive benefits accruing from the utilization of shared decision-making. The surveyed participants in this study agreed with the findings of Seashore and Abt Associates (1981), Griffiths (1977), and Hoy and Miskel (1982). In responding to the School Planning Questionnaire, the survey participants reported that "When the shared decision-making approach is used in school planning, staff morale 'frequently' occurs." They stated that using the shared decision-making approach in school planning "frequently to always" improved staff motivation towards goal accomplishment. Survey participants responded that using the shared decision-making approach to school planning "rarely" produced poor staff relationships. These data were supported by the interview findings. Robinson (1976), Allutto and Belasco (1972), Sparkes (1981), and Hoy and Miskel (1982) also indicated that the use of shared decision-making would result in higher job satisfaction.

In exploring the aspect of communication, the survey participants reported that plans had been communicated across all levels of the school to a "moderately high" degree. They also felt that using the shared decision-making approach to school planning would

⁵⁰ Arthur Blumberg, "Developing Teacher Decision-Making Through Structural Interventions," Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association (Los Angeles, CA; Feb., 1969), pp.3-8.

frequently result in improved inter-school and intra-school communication. These findings are also corroborated by Seashore and Abt Associates (1981) and Hoy and Miskel (1982). Harrison's (1981) study of the impact of decision-making on administrator-subordinate communication behavior indicated that high participation groups were characterized by significantly higher levels of team building on the part of supervisors, subordinate trust of the administrator, and subordinate satisfaction with the administrator. Other important factors included the receipt of information from the supervisor and the subordinate's desire for interaction with the administrator.⁵¹

Participants in this study also reported that shared decision-making would improve the chances of accomplishing school goals. Shared decision-making in school planning had been viewed as being "highly effective" in the improvement of reading, mathematics, and student attendance, and "somewhat effective" in the improvement of teacher attendance.

Lipham (1982) concluded the following regarding shared decision-making in schools: "Appropriate involvement of staff in decision-making is significantly and positively related to the outcomes of staff satisfaction and teaching effectiveness."⁵²

Follow-up interview pursued the question of what factors were perceived to be most important in the determination of the success of shared decision-making. Principals tended to focus the most on group characteristics, emphasizing harmonious relations amongst the team members and having good team members. Teachers noted more leadership qualities (having a good facilitator) than did parents or administrators. Teachers also indicated the importance of meeting time limits, staying on task, working towards the same goal, and

⁵¹Teresa M. Harrison, The Impact of Participative Decision Making on Supervisory and Subordinate Communication Behavior, (Doctoral dissertation, Bowling Green State University, 1981) pp.96-97.

⁵²James M. Lipham, "Administrators and Supervisors," in Improving Educational Standards and Productivity, ed. by Herbert J. Walberg (Berkeley: McCutchan Publishing Corp., 1982) p.28.

understanding the goals and objectives. Parents emphasized working cooperatively towards common goals and objectives.

In a related question focusing on what should be changed about the process, time constraints were a major concern. Principals focused on the need for formal training in shared decision-making. Teachers indicated a desire for greater involvement in the decision-making process and improved communication. Parents indicated a desire for more parent involvement, monitoring of the process, and a need for "more money." Teachers expressed the most satisfaction with the current process.

Time constraints have been highlighted as a possible problem arising from the use of this approach by several authors including: Duke (1980) and Strauss (1964). The shared decision-making approach does involve more time commitment, and this appears to be a realistic concern.

In pursuing the effects of shared decision-making on the teacher and the administrator, it was noted that the respondents felt shared decision-making in school planning was "occasionally" more difficult for the teachers. Parents perceived that it was less likely to be difficult for the teacher than did the administrators or teaching staff.

The consensus of opinion regarding shared decision-making and the principal was that this approach "rarely" undermined the authority of the principal and that it was "occasionally" more difficult for the principal to use this approach.

Blumberg (1969) reported that participative decision-making can result in role confusion and conflict for both principals and teachers. It was noted that teachers might feel that additional duties were being thrust upon them and that they were now required to do the administrator's job as well.⁵³

⁵³ Arthur Blumberg, "Developing Teacher Decision-Making Through Structural Interventions," Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association (Los Angeles, CA; Feb., 1969), pp.3-8.

This did not appear to be occurring to a great degree with this sample of teachers. It could be that the inclusion of parents in the process and the high visibility of the Reform effort emphasizing shared decision-making may have intervened. Interviews with all of the constituencies did indicate, however, the need for "training" regarding roles and responsibilities.

The multiple regression procedure was utilized to determine the best predictors of perceived effectiveness in planning for the areas of reading achievement, mathematics achievement, student attendance, and teacher attendance. The results of these analyses were:

H₀₁₁=Training rating, degree that shared decision-making took place, degree of perceived involvement, degree of perceived influence, and degree of perceived implementation, do not predict the rating on improved reading was rejected for the variables: extent that the decisions were implemented in the area of planning for the improvement of reading achievement and influence in the decisions for the improvement of reading achievement.

H₀₁₂=Training rating, degree that shared decision-making took place, degree of perceived involvement, degree of perceived influence, and degree of perceived implementation, do not predict the rating on improved mathematics was rejected for the variables: the extent that decisions were implemented for the area of planning for the improvement of mathematics achievement, and the degree of influence in the decisions for the area of mathematics achievement.

H₀₁₃=Degree of perceived involvement, degree of perceived influence, degree that shared decision-making took place, and degree of perceived implementation, do not predict the rating on improved student attendance was rejected for the variable, the extent that decisions for the improvement of student attendance were implemented.

H₀₁₄=Degree of perceived involvement, degree of perceived influence, degree that shared decision-making took place, and degree of perceived implementation, do not predict the rating on improved teacher attendance was rejected for the variable, the extent that decisions for the improvement of teacher attendance were implemented.

The degree to which decisions were implemented served as the best predictor of how effective respondents felt their decisions had been in improving the targeted areas. The degree of training in a particular area for planning was not an adequate predictor of the degree of the perceived effectiveness of planning for improvement in the core areas of reading and mathematics. The degree of perceived influence was also a predictor of the perceived effectiveness of planning for the improvement in the core areas of reading and mathematics. It was not a good predictor for the areas of student attendance and teacher attendance. The degree of perceived involvement and influence on the individual level were more strongly correlated with the perceived effectiveness of planning in the improvement of the targeted areas than the overall degree of shared decision-making at the school.

The findings of this portion of the analysis revealing that perceived influence and implementation of decisions are the best predictors of the perceived effectiveness of the decision, indicate that the individuals involved in the decision-making process must feel that their decisions are validly considered. Further, implementation of plans must be communicated effectively to the decision-making body.

It was interesting to note that the degree of perceived shared decision-making at the school was not a predictor of perceived effectiveness of planning. It could be that the individuals felt that shared decision-making had taken place, but that their views were not necessarily utilized. It was the utilization of the individual's decisions that was the predictor of perceived effectiveness.

Another interesting finding was that the degree of training in a particular area did not predict the perceived effectiveness of the planning for a particular area. It was noted earlier in the study that parents, community representatives and career service personnel had the least training of the participant groups, yet parents and community representatives comprised 15% of the sample. Those with training generally felt that training was more important than those without training.

Perceptions are important. They drive political action. They are altered through experience and education. Training experiences might change the perceptions of the participants in planning. Furthermore, assessment of success by measurable achievement might also alter perceptions. The real test, is whether or not the schools experienced actual improvement in the targeted planning areas. Future studies should address this issue.

APPLICATION OF THE HERSEY-BLANCHARD MODEL TO SCHOOL PLANNING AND SHARED DECISION-MAKING

Two of the Hersey-Blanchard instruments were utilized in this process: The Decision-Making and Problem Solving Inventory and the Readiness Style Match. Theory would predict that schools which apply the model will perceive the decisions to be more effective. The questions explored in the first section addressed the application of the Decision-Making and Problem-Solving Inventory.

APPLICATION OF THE PROBLEM-SOLVING AND DECISION-MAKING STYLE INVENTORY

1. The responses of the principal and the participants in planning were compared on two instruments: Problem-solving and Decision-making Style Inventory (Perception of Self) and Problem-solving and Decision-making Style Inventory (Perception of Other). Questions emanating from this portion of the study included: What is the principal's primary leadership style with the planning team? What is the principal's secondary leadership style with the planning team? What is the relative emphasis in decisions (leader-made, collaborative, or follower-made decisions)? Does the perception of emphasis vary by position, of the participants? The School Planning Questionnaire was utilized to determine a training rating for the participants. The question of application of the theory was analyzed in terms of the differences between the group training ratings and the leadership style utilized by the principal.

Descriptive data on these questions were tabulated.

Null hypotheses for the issues were:

H₀₁₅=There is no difference in the training rating and the leadership style.

H₀₁₆=There is no difference in the leadership style-match and perceived effectiveness of planning in the area of reading.

H₀₁₇=There is no difference in the leadership style-match and perceived effectiveness of planning in the area of mathematics.

Analysis of the inventories revealed that the typical respondent viewed the principals' primary style as being 3, participating (facilitative) and the principal's secondary style as being 2, selling (consultative). The majority of the decisions were viewed as collaborative.

It was interesting to note that the secondary styles utilized by the principals involved

closer supervision than the primary styles. This would appear to indicate that the principals in this study assume a more positive evaluation of the team members "readiness" levels and then adjust to a closer supervisory mode if necessary. This would tend to indicate that as a group these principals might be considered theory Y managers according to McGregor.

The analysis of agreement between the principal and the team on the principal's primary style of decision-making indicated that there was approximately a 62% agreement. Analysis of problem-solving styles based on team composition revealed that the majority of the teams, close to 75%, used the collaborative approach. While significant differences were not noted by team composition, it was noted that follower-made decisions were made by teams composed primarily of teachers. Leader-made decisions were predominantly made by teams composed of administrator and teacher combinations or parent and teacher combinations. Theory would dictate that the leader-made decisions should be made by teams with less training. The collaborative-made decisions should be made by teams with a moderate level of training, and the follower-made decisions should be made by teams with the most expertise. Null hypothesis 15 explored the match of the team training levels in the areas of mathematics and reading to the primary decision-making style of the principal of the school team. Chi-square analysis was then utilized to determine if there were significant differences between the primary decision-making style of the principal and the composite training levels of the teams for mathematics and reading. Differences were found to be not significant, and H_{015} = There is no difference in the training rating and the leadership style could not be rejected. It appeared that for the most part, principals were not matching leadership style to the readiness level (training rating) of the groups.

A secondary analysis explored whether schools emphasizing a particular leadership style perceived planning in the targeted areas to be more effective. It was noted that

schools using the collaborative decision style also had a majority of the team ratings on effectiveness of planning in the level 3 range, "highly effective." Schools using the follower-made decision style had a majority of their effectiveness ratings in the level 2 range, "somewhat effective." Schools using the leader-made decision style had half of their ratings in the "somewhat effective" range and half in the "very highly effective" range. It should be noted, however, that the majority of the schools utilized the collaborative style. Only two schools respectively used the follower-made and leader-made decision styles.

The Hersey-Blanchard model advocates, however, that it is not the leadership style that is important as much as the match of the leadership style to the readiness level. It could be that those schools using the match of decision-making style to team readiness level might perceive planning to be more effective. When data on the training levels by leadership style were analyzed, it was determined that there was a greater match between leadership style and training in the area of planning for the improvement of reading than for the area of planning for the improvement of mathematics. Chi-square analysis indicated that schools matching leadership style to training level in reading, perceived the planning for the area of reading to be more effective. Hence, H_{016} = There is no difference in the leadership style match and perceived effectiveness of planning in the area of reading was rejected. H_{017} , there is no difference in the leadership style match and perceived effectiveness of planning in the area of mathematics was not rejected.

These data seemed to support the Hersey and Blanchard model. A secondary analysis was performed using the Hersey-Blanchard scales for readiness, which also take into account the motivation factor.

THE HERSEY, BLANCHARD, KIELTY READINESS-MATCH INSTRUMENTS

The following questions served as the foci for analysis in this portion of the study:

2. Does the principal appear to be matching readiness of the participants to leadership style? Is there consensus between the participants and the principals in planning? Is decision-making perceived to be more effective in the schools where there is a readiness-leadership style match (where the theory is appropriately applied)?

Null hypotheses for the issues were:

H_{018} = There is no difference in the readiness rating of the individuals and the leadership style employed.

H_{019} = There is no difference in the leadership style match for the reading objective and the rating on improved reading.

H_{020} = There is no difference in the leadership style match for the mathematics objective and the rating on improved mathematics.

H_{021} = There is no difference in the leadership style match for the student attendance objective and the rating on improved student attendance.

H_{022} = There is no difference in the leadership style match for the teacher attendance objective and the rating on improved teacher attendance.

The overall consensus between principals' and team members' ratings was a mean of 75.6%, indicating that team members and principals were in fairly strong agreement about the assessments. The overall percentage of match between principals' styles and team members' readiness levels was 25.8%, indicating a low accuracy of the match between

leadership style and team member readiness according to the Hersey-Blanchard model. These findings were similar to those of the Problem-solving and Decision-making Style Inventory, where a 62% consensus between the principal and the team members was noted and the majority of the principals did not match training level to leadership style.

Chi-square analysis was used to determine if there was a significant difference between the type of leadership style used and the readiness level of the team members. Chi-square values were only significant in the area of planning for the improvement of mathematics achievement. Examination of the distribution revealed that principals tended to use a leadership style of telling and selling when supervising team members with a readiness level of 3.5. The principals used a delegative leadership style when working with a readiness level of 4. Participative styles were used when team members exhibited readiness levels of 3 or 4. Spearman Correlation tests yielded a moderate correlation between style of supervision and readiness level for the area of mathematics planning. H_{018} = There is no difference in the readiness rating of the individuals and the leadership style employed, was rejected for the area of mathematics planning.

It was interesting to note that in the case of the Readiness Style-Match instruments, the area of mathematics was where leadership-style match most frequently occurred, but that when using the Problem-solving and Decision-making Style Inventory, the area of reading was where the match most often occurred. It is hypothesized that this could have occurred for two reasons. 1) A different scale of "readiness" was utilized in the determination for the Problem-solving and Decision-making Style Inventory (training rating) than for the Readiness Style-Match (ability and willingness). Secondly, the Problem-solving and Decision-making Style Inventory was used with a larger sample than the Readiness Style-Match, which was limited to the key decision-makers on the team.

Information from the School Planning Questionnaire revealed that fewer planning participants, overall, had training in mathematics than in reading. It is possible, that the key decision-makers had more specialized training in mathematics and were more likely to be matched with a mathematics planning team. The principal, in turn, recognizing the ability of the mathematics team, might be more inclined to delegate. It was also noted that principals, in general indicated a greater expertise in the area of reading. It is possible that they might be inclined to supervise more closely in an area of familiarity to them. Since planning for student attendance and teacher attendance did not require specialized training, it would be difficult to match ability to this objective.

The final analysis explored whether or not planning was perceived to be more effective when the Hersey-Blanchard model was employed, ie. when there was a leadership style-readiness match. Chi-square analyses were performed for each of the planning areas using the ratings from item 14 of the School Planning Questionnaire summarized by school and the degree of match discrepancy calculated by school (0 discrepancy would mean that there was a match.) None of the chi-square values were found to be significant. When match was recoded from the degree of discrepancy to a yes/no item, one area of significance was determined, planning for the improvement of student attendance. Examination of the contingency table revealed that half of the schools where a match occurred had rated effectiveness as 2, "somewhat" and half had rated the effectiveness as 4, "very high." Those schools where the model was not employed, rated effectiveness as 3, "highly effective" and 2, "somewhat effective." It is important to note, however, that only two of the schools had used a readiness-leadership match in the planning for this area. This finding enabled the rejection of Ho21 (Ho21=There is no difference in the leadership style-match for the student attendance objective and the rating on improved student attendance). Ho19=There is no difference in the leadership-style

match for the reading objective and the rating on improved reading; H_{020} =There is no difference in the leadership style-match for the mathematics objective and the rating on improved mathematics; and H_{022} =There is no difference in the leadership style-match for the teacher attendance objective and the rating on improved teacher attendance were not rejected.

The results from this analysis suggest that the use of the model predicted the effectiveness rating in the area of student attendance. The results were mixed, however, with schools using the match, rating effectiveness in planning as being "somewhat effective" and "very highly effective," while schools not using the model rated effectiveness as both "somewhat effective" and "highly effective." It would be difficult to conclude that the model when used correctly would predict higher planning effectiveness ratings in the targeted areas.

Since this instrument is usually used as an individual measure, the difference between match and effectiveness ratings by individual was also analyzed. The findings revealed no significant differences in any of the planning areas.

Why did the model appear to work in the case of the Problem-solving and Decision-making Style Inventory and not work in the case of the Readiness Style-Match Inventory? As pointed out, the analyses for the two instruments used a different sample and a different basis for the calculation of readiness. It is hypothesized that readiness in the areas of planning for the improvement of student and teacher attendance is very difficult to determine. While motivation may be appraised, the determination of ability is less clear. The analysis for the Decision-Making Inventory explored the use of the model in the areas of planning for the improvement of reading and mathematics only. Training in these areas is more concrete and easier to appraise.

It is noted that earlier analyses suggested that training level of the individual was not a

predictor of perceived effectiveness of planning. This evidence is not contrary. The regression data suggest that the individual's training level does not predict his/her perception of the effectiveness of training. The data from the Decision-making Inventory suggest that when leadership style is matched to the training level of the team for a particular area (ie. planning for the improvement of reading achievement), that the team as a whole perceives planning to be more effective.

The results of two studies, Punch and Ducharme (1972) and Roach (1981), were cited as examples of the difficulty in applying the Hersey-Blanchard Situational Leadership model to educational settings.

Punch and Ducharme's (1972) study found that high maturity teachers preferred a higher level of relations orientation from administrators than did teachers in the medium and low maturity groups. This was a linear and not a curvilinear relationship. The authors found no relationship between maturity and the preference for a task oriented leader.

Roach (1981) examined perceived principal effectiveness as a function of the relationship between leadership style and job related maturity of elementary school teachers. In studying urban, suburban, small city and rural county schools of Ohio, he determined that principals whose leadership styles matched the job related maturity levels of the teachers were not perceived by the teachers as being more effective than those principals whose leadership styles did not match the teacher's job related maturity levels.

It is possible that this business administration model might not be applicable to educational settings in all cases. Further examination is necessary.

MAJOR FINDINGS

The major findings for this study are enumerated below by area.

DECISIONAL DOMAINS

1. The majority of the areas targeted for changes in the desired mode of decision-making in the traditional administrator domain included: allocation of staff, school budget, determining the format for school reports, determining staff roles and responsibilities, teacher schedules, teacher attendance, staff development, school beautification and maintenance, climate and school.
2. Areas targeted for changes in the desired mode of decision-making in the traditional teacher domain included: determining instructional methods and textbook selection.
3. Parents appeared to be more reluctant to enter the perceived administrative domains of planning for the improvement of teacher attendance, establishing teaching schedules, and evaluating school personnel.
4. Teachers participated the least in the evaluation of school personnel, and the allocation of teachers and other school staff. These are traditionally administrative domains.
5. A few parents indicated a desire for greater control in the instructional methods decisions.
6. The largest percentage of administrators who did not wish participate, did not wish to make decisions in the area of instructional domains.

FORMS AND AMOUNTS OF PARTICIPATION

7. The majority of respondents wanted to participate in decision-making to a greater extent than they currently were participating. Differences were evident in 70.5% of the planning areas cited.
8. The largest percentage of respondents who did not wish to participate in planning were parents.
9. A greater percentage of administrators made decisions alone than any other group. The majority of administrators made decisions alone in the areas of: evaluating school personnel and the allocation of teachers and other staff.
10. The greatest percentage of teachers made decisions alone in the area of determining the instructional methods for students.
11. Making decisions as a part of a group was the most popular form of participation. Parents tended to participate by making decisions as a part of a group for the areas of: school budget, planning for school beautification and maintenance, and determination of staff development programs. Teachers made decisions in this manner for the areas: improving student attendance, improving teacher attendance, planning for the improvement of school climate, and textbook and materials selection. Administrators used this procedure for all areas except the evaluation of school personnel.
12. The analysis of decisional domains and modes of participation highlighted the fact that there was more than one way to participate in decision-making. Making decisions as a part of the group was the most popular form of decision-making. It was noted, however, that in the area of budget, where a high level of participation was currently evident, more people wanted to participate in the form of

recommending, gathering, or providing information than were currently doing so.

PARTICIPANT CRITERIA

13. Different position-types focused on different criteria for participation in decision-making. Administrators focused on ability, training, expertise and willingness as the most important qualities. Parents were most concerned with the commitment to the school. Teachers emphasized a lack of bias, responsibility and human relations skills.

STAGES OF INVOLVEMENT

14. Differences in the stages of involvement in decision-making were noted by position. The plurality of respondents were involved at stages 3 and 4, gathering information and determining possible solutions. Administrators indicated earlier involvement than others.

DEGREE OF INVOLVEMENT AND PERCEIVED INFLUENCE

15. Perceived involvement was closely related to perceived influence.
16. Those persons with higher training levels were more involved in decision-making.
17. In general, those persons with the least amount of training were perceived to have the least influence.

DYNAMICS OF SHARED DECISION-MAKING

18. Differences in reactions to opposing views were noted by position. Principals primarily indicated that if a shared decision was reached contrary to their view, they

would go along with the consensus, unless it was illegal or dangerous. They also indicated that they would overrule the decision or not implement it. Teachers indicated that they would cooperate or modify their views. Parents indicated that they would go along with whatever was determined by the group.

19. Differences in the influences in decision-making were also noted by position.

Principals indicated that they were most influenced by the idea itself, as they saw it. Teachers used more combinations, but focused on the expertise of those supporting the idea and the idea itself. Parents used the same configuration as teachers, but their responses indicated that they would tend to be swayed by public opinion.

PERCEIVED OUTCOMES OF SHARED DECISION-MAKING

20. Participants indicated that shared decision-making took place to a moderately high degree.

21. Perceived effectiveness of planning was moderately correlated to the perceived degree of decision implementation.

22. The degree to which decisions were implemented was the best predictor of how effective the participants felt the decisions had been in improving the targeted areas. The degree of perceived influence was also a predictor of the perceived effectiveness of planning for the core areas of reading and mathematics.

23. Benefits of shared decision-making included: increased support and commitment for the decisions from the parents and faculty, a better understanding of the school and its needs, improved morale, communication, motivation and group cohesiveness.

24. Problems cited with the use of shared decision-making included time constraints,

training needs and needs for improved communication.

THE HERSEY-BLANCHARD MODEL AND SHARED DECISION- MAKING IN SCHOOL PLANNING

25. Most principals used a participating (facilitative) style as their primary leadership style and a selling (consultative) style as their secondary style of leadership. The secondary styles involved closer supervision of personnel than did the primary leadership styles.
26. Schools using the collaborative method of leadership perceived the planning in the targeted areas to be more effective.
27. Few schools employed a leadership-match in determining delegation and sharing of decisions.
28. Matching of training level to leadership style appeared to be an easier match for principals to make in the core areas.
29. Since few schools were using the leadership-match in guiding style and decision-making in planning, it was difficult to substantiate its ability to predict the perceived effectiveness of school planning.

SUMMARY

This section of the study has reviewed the findings. Previous research has been cited in order to compare the findings of this study with other research and extract a deeper understanding of the data. In the final chapter to follow, results will be summarized and recommendations offered. The usefulness of research is in part determined by its application.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

INTRODUCTION

This chapter will summarize the highlights from the study. This will be followed by recommendations for policy makers, for only through the application of research and theory can endeavors such as this become meaningful. The chapter will conclude with recommendations for future research. While a great deal has been done in this area of investigation, a great deal remains to be determined. Further research will provide clearer visions of the process of shared decision-making and optimal models for its utilization.

CONCLUSIONS AND POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS

Results from this analysis of shared decision-making in selected urban elementary schools highlight the fact that shared decision-making was taking place to a "moderately high degree" in the sampled settings. A major focus of study was the extent that people participated in the decision-making process, as it related to school planning, compared to the amount they wanted to participate. It was determined that significant differences in the amount of participation as compared to the amount of desired participation existed for the areas of: teacher attendance, school budget, textbook selection, student discipline, allocation of staff, determination of instructional methods, determination of the format for school reports on student progress, staff development, determination of the staff roles and

responsibilities, school climate, school beautification, and teacher schedules.

Discrepancies between the amount of participation and the amount of desired participation existed in 12 of the 17 (71%) areas analyzed. Examination of the list indicated differentiated roles that participants wanted to play in the decision-making process for each of the areas analyzed. In general, a role of greater decision-making as a part of a group was desired.

Further analysis explored differences in participation and desired participation by position: administrator, teacher and parent. The breakdown by position revealed significant differences in the amount of participation by position for the planning areas of: student attendance, teacher attendance, textbook and instructional materials selection, student discipline issues, allocation of teachers and other school staff, determining the instructional objectives for students at the site, planning for school beautification, establishing teaching schedules and evaluation of school personnel.

It was noted that a greater percentage of administrators made decisions alone than either of the other two groups. The greatest percentage of administrators made decisions alone in the areas of evaluating school personnel and the allocation of teachers and other staff. The largest percentage of teachers made decisions alone in the area of determining the instructional methods to be used with students. Parents did not make decisions alone.

Group participation in decision-making was noted for the largest percentage of parents, in the areas of: school budget, planning for school beautification and maintenance, and determination of staff development programs. The largest percentage of teachers were involved in group decision-making in the areas of improving student attendance, improving teacher attendance, planning for the improvement of school climate, and textbook and materials selection. Administrators made decisions as a part of a group in all areas, with the exception of the evaluation of school personnel, where they made decisions alone.

The least amount of parent participation in decision-making occurred in the establishment of teaching schedules, improvement of teacher attendance, and evaluation of school personnel. Teachers participated the least in the areas of evaluation of school personnel and the allocation of teachers and other school staff.

Analysis by position of the areas where respondents wanted to participate in decision-making, revealed the following areas as differing significantly by position: textbook and/or instructional materials selection, student discipline issues, allocation of teachers and other school staff, determination of instructional methods to be used with the students, determination of the format for school reports on student progress, determination of staff development programs, and planning for school beautification or maintenance.

Administrators and teachers equally wished to make some decisions alone. The highest percentage of administrators wanted to make decisions alone in the areas of evaluation of school personnel and the allocation of teachers and other school staff. Teachers wanted to make decisions alone in the areas of determination of the instructional methods to be used with students and the determination of the instructional objectives for students at the site. A total of 5.3% of the parents wished to make decisions alone in the area of determining the instructional methods to be used with the students.

The greatest percentage of parents wanted to participate as a group in the areas of planning for the improvement of student attendance, planning for the improvement of mathematics achievement, student discipline issues, planning for the improvement of school climate and determining the instructional objectives for students. The greatest percentage of teachers wanted to participate as a group in the areas of planning for school beautification or maintenance and planning for the improvement of school climate.

Administrators and teachers desired the least group participation in the area of evaluating school personnel. Teachers also indicated that group participation should not occur in the areas of allocation of teachers and other staff and determining the instructional

methods to be used with students (36% wanted to make the decision as a part of the group, but 26% wished to make the decision alone). Parents wanted the least participation in the areas of planning for the improvement of teacher attendance and establishing teaching schedules.

Nearly 20% of the parents did not wish to participate in the decision-making process compared to nearly 10% of the teachers. The largest percentage of parents did not want to participate in the areas of planning for the improvement of teacher attendance, evaluation of school personnel, determining the format of school reports on student progress and the allocation of teachers and other school staff. The largest percentage of teachers did not wish to participate in the areas of evaluation of school personnel and the allocation of teachers and other school staff. The largest percentage of administrators did not wish to participate in the area of determining the instructional methods to be used with students.

Review of these findings indicated that the domains examined by Stuckwisch (1986) and Hanson and Brown (1977) were intact (managerial and instructional zones). It was noted however, that a new population of constituents has entered the picture, the parents. Parents wanted access to domains that had previously been the province of the administrator or the teacher. Under Reform, for example, parents were very much involved in the aspects of budgeting, which has traditionally been viewed as an administrative domain.

These analyses illustrated areas where differentiated forms of participation were desired. It was also noted that overall, greater group participation was desired in the area of determining staff roles and responsibilities, establishing teaching schedules, and determining the format of school reports (nearly a 20% discrepancy between the amount participated and the amount of desired participation). In the area of school budget, slightly fewer people desired group participation. The surveyed participants indicated a desire for more participation in the area of gathering and providing information.

It is clear from these findings that the issue of shared decision-making can not be resolved by the "more is better" solution. In the age of school-based management, the needs of individual schools, as well as those of different constituencies must be acknowledged. Based on the findings from this portion of the analysis, the following recommendations are made:

1. Schools should survey constituents to determine decisional domains and areas of decisional saturation. Given this information, schools can tailor decision-making to meet their individual needs.
2. These findings suggested that the participants in this survey viewed the evaluation of school personnel and the allocation of teachers and other staff as administrative domains. Data indicated that these were areas where the administrator might make the decisions alone.
3. Administrators and teachers targeted determination of instructional methods to be used with the students as the exclusive domain of the teacher. Determination of instructional objectives was another related area cited by teachers for their decision-making. Parents on the survey, however, indicated that these were areas where they would like greater decisional input. Parents also indicated a desire for greater group participation in the planning for core subject areas such as mathematics. Evidence from this survey indicated that parents lacked training in determination of instructional methods and objectives for core areas. In interviews, some parents also expressed that these areas should be the domain of the teacher. It is clear that this is an area of conflict. It also appears that a blanket policy would not satisfy constituents. It is proposed that on a pilot basis, at schools where greater parent participation is desired, parents participate as part of the group in the decisions. Since many parents lack training in these areas, and this appears to be one of the bases for misgivings, parent participants should be given some training in this area as a requirement for participation. The motive for participation should

be production of quality plans. It is, therefore, incumbent upon those who participate to have training in the areas, where they will be planning. Examination of the outcomes should dictate policy. If participation proves to result in improved student achievement, then this plan should be continued or expanded.

4. It was interesting to note that administrators felt that decisions regarding instructional methods should be the exclusive domain of the teacher. The administrator's role as instructional leader appears in conflict with this view. It is recognized that the new responsibilities thrust upon the principal have placed new time constraints upon him/her. It is also hypothesized that the principal is placing the decisional power with those having expertise in the area. In recognition of the importance of the instructional leader role, however, it is proposed that the principal delegate those tasks that are not necessarily administrative, to free time for instructional supervision. This would allow him/her to practice the role of instructional leader.

5. Throughout the survey, parents indicated that they were not interested in participating in the areas of planning for the improvement of teacher attendance, evaluation of teachers and other school staff, determining the format of school reports on student progress and the allocation of teachers and other school staff. Since they are not motivated to participate in these areas and lack training in the areas, it is proposed that they do not participate in the decisions in these areas.

6. Teachers indicated a desire for greater group participation in the areas of planning for school beautification and school climate. These areas are conducive to group decision-making and provision for greater teacher input should be provided.

7. Parents also indicated a desire to participate as a group in the areas of: planning for the improvement of student attendance, student discipline issues, and planning for the improvement of school climate. These areas would lend themselves to group participation and the opportunity should be offered.

8. Participation appeared to be somewhat related to training. Informing the participants can only serve to improve the plans. Interviews also confirmed the general belief of administrators and teachers that training is valuable. It is recommended that all team members receive training in the process of shared decision-making and consensus building, understanding the school plan, and developing goals and objectives. Specialized training should be offered to team members lacking experience or knowledge in specific planning areas such as: budget, development of plans for core subject areas, etc.

Interviews revealed that perceptions regarding the criteria that should be used to determine participation differed by position. The compiled list including: training, ability, commitment, interest in the school, lack of bias, good human relations skills, and responsibility appeared to be a good one. Since, this list varied by position, it is evident that consensus needs to be reached regarding the qualities that are most important for participation in planning. Hence, it is recommended that:

9. Representatives from each constituency meet to determine the qualities most necessary to participate in planning. This will add to the cohesiveness of the teams.

It was noted that views differed regarding who participated in the decision-making. Parent involvement occurred most in the area of student attendance, an area that did not require specialized training for planning. Results of this study also indicated that involvement and influence were somewhat highly correlated. Differences in the amount of involvement varied by position for the planning areas of reading, student attendance and teacher attendance. The degree of influence differed significantly by position for the areas of student attendance and teacher attendance. Results indicated that the hierarchy of involvement for the areas of reading and teacher attendance was: administrators, teachers, and parents. The hierarchy of involvement for the area of student attendance was: administrators, parents, and teachers. It was also noted that administrators felt they had the most influence in the attendance objectives and that parents felt they exerted somewhat

greater influence than teachers on these objectives. Involvement and influence for the areas of planning for the improvement of reading and mathematics achievement were related to training. In general, those with higher training levels perceived that they had greater involvement and influence in planning. The following recommendations with regard to these findings are made:

10. Since opinions differed to some degree regarding who was participating in planning, it appears that better communication in this area is warranted.

11. Since involvement and influence were highly correlated, and in the core areas both were related to the degree of training, it appears that those who want to play a greater role in the planning for the core areas should have training in these areas.

Examination of the phases of participation and the phase of first involvement in decision-making revealed that most of the respondents were involved at stage 4, determining possible solutions. First involvement occurred at stages 3, gathering information, and 4, determining possible solutions. Differences by position for first involvement in the area were noted in the case of teacher attendance, where principals were involved at stage 2, establishing the guidelines for the resolution of the issue. Since, this is an area that the respondents felt should be within the administrator's decisional domain, this is not unusual. Recommendations for these findings are:

12. If there is a desire for greater involvement in the decision-making process, decisional input should occur at earlier stages. Schools frequently complain that they have little input into the system-wide objectives. In order to combat this perception, representatives of the constituencies should be involved in stages one and two of the decision-making process, originating the issue and establishing the guidelines for the resolution of the issue.

Examination of the dynamics of shared decision-making, ie. "How do participants react when the decision reached is contrary to their point of view? What influences

participants the most in reaching decisions?," revealed that differences existed by position. Principals indicated that if a shared decision was reached contrary to their view, they would go along with the consensus, unless it was illegal or dangerous. Close to one-quarter indicated that they would overrule the decision or not implement it. Teachers indicated that they would cooperate or modify their views. A majority of the parents indicated that they would go along with whatever was decided. It appeared that principal's continued to view themselves as the person in control of the final decision, since they assumed final responsibility.

Principals indicated that it was the idea, itself, as they saw it that influenced them the most. Teachers felt that it was not only the idea itself, but the expertise of those supporting the view. While parents also cited the expertise of those supporting the view and the idea itself, they were also more likely to indicate the number of persons supporting the idea as an important factor. These results suggest that the parents may be less confident in their own decision-making abilities based on a lack of training. Recommendations follow:

13. The results of this portion of the study indicate that principal's tend to view themselves as controlling the power in planning. Furthermore, it suggests that parents are more likely to be swayed in their opinions. This may result from a lack of confidence in decision-making abilities due to a lack of experience and/or training. If parents are to wield more power in decision-making, it is suggested that training must take place. Further, if principals are to share decisional power, it seems that clarification of roles and responsibilities is in order.

An examination of the perceived effects of shared decision-making in school planning revealed that plans for the improvement of reading and student attendance had a "high" effect on them personally, while the decisions about mathematics and teacher attendance had "some" effect. Responses were related to the degree of involvement in planning.

Survey participants also indicated that participation in the planning for the areas of

reading, mathematics, and student attendance had been of "some to high" importance, while participation in the decisions about teacher attendance were of "little to some" importance. Once again, administrators and teachers felt that the areas of teacher attendance were "highly" important, while parents indicated that planning for this area was not important. This would support the contention that parents are not interested in planning for the area of improvement of teacher attendance.

Overall, planning was judged to be "highly effective" for the areas of reading, mathematics, and student attendance, and "somewhat effective" for the area of teacher attendance. Respondents also reported that the decisions had been carried out to a "high" degree, and that they were satisfied with all decisions. Analyses confirmed that perceived effectiveness of planning was moderately correlated to the perceived degree of decision implementation.

Among the benefits accruing from shared decision-making that were cited by the respondents were: increased support and commitment for the decisions from the parents and faculty, better understanding of the school and its needs, greater sense of self-worth, improved faculty morale, better understanding of how others view the school, improved group cohesiveness, learning more about the goals and expectations of other grades, better appreciation of the school staff, and improved communication. Survey participants indicated that plans had been communicated to a "moderately high" degree and that shared decision-making resulted in improved inter- and intra-school communication. It was perceived that participation in the shared decision-making would result in more effective planning.

Results from the multiple regression analyses revealed that perceived influence and implementation were the best predictors of the perceived effectiveness of decisions in planning.

Problems highlighted as occurring with shared decision-making included: time

constraints and increased responsibilities for teachers and administrators. These were consistent with the findings of other researchers.

A question on what should be changed about the process focused on time constraints, a need for monitoring, a need for greater involvement of parents and teachers in the decision-making, a need for training, and a need for improved communication.

Follow-up interview on what was perceived to be most important in the determination of the success of shared decision-making focused on group characteristics: having team members with abilities and having a harmonious group, and leadership qualities: having a good facilitator, meeting time limits, staying on task, and working towards common goals and objectives.

The following recommendations are made based on these findings:

14. The degree of perceived influence and the perceptions regarding the degree to which decisions are implemented are the best predictors of perceived effectiveness. It was also noted that perceived effectiveness was moderately correlated to the degree of involvement.

These results suggest participants in planning must feel that their opinions are valued.

15. It was interesting to note that the amount of shared decision-making and training in the core areas did not predict perceptions on the effectiveness of planning. The degree of shared decision-making at a school is not the same as the influence an individual exerts in the planning process. The fact that the degree of training that the individual participants possessed in the core areas did not predict their perceptions of planning in those areas, was related to the fact that 15% of the sample did not possess training. Training was considered a more valuable trait by those with training. While training may not have positively affected the perceptions of this sample group, it does not mean that they were less in-touch with the realities of planning effectiveness. Perceptions drive political action and are best modified through experience and education. If perceptions regarding the success of

planning are to be altered, it will occur through participation in the planning process and evaluation and analysis of the realities of the outcomes.

16. Many positive outcomes were cited from the use of shared decision-making. It is clear that these are desirable. Earlier analysis revealed, however, that there are many ways of participating and that participation should be tailored to the needs of individual schools and constituencies.

17. Persons participating in the interview noted that group qualities, task orientation, leadership qualities, and goals and objectives are all areas for consideration in ensuring the success of shared decision-making. It appeared from this sample that consensus building and having common goals and objectives were major areas for consideration in this process.

18. Time constraints increased the responsibilities for teachers and administrators and highlighted a need for monitoring, a need for greater involvement of parents and teachers in the decision-making, a need for training, and a need for improved communication. Increased involvement of parents and teachers should be based on the considerations outlined in recommendations 1-8. Time is always a concern with this process. Experience and training should assist in the more efficient utilization of time. Review of the process may indicate areas where less time should be devoted. Planning team members could be offered assistance with other responsibilities. Training needs have been addressed in earlier recommendations. Efforts should be made to improve communication in the specific cases where problems are evident, since overall, communication appeared to be effective. Monitoring is a realistic concern. Cyclical review and evaluation of the process of planning, the plans themselves, and the outcomes will lead to improvement and the optimal use of the model.

Part two of this study explored the application of the Hersey-Blanchard Situational Leadership Theory to shared decision-making and school planning. This model would

advocate that as the ability and willingness levels of the team member increase, the leader should move to a less supervisory and more delegative role.

Analysis of the results of the two decision-making inventories revealed that a majority of principals used a collaborative approach to decision-making. There was close agreement between the team participants and the principal on the styles of leadership that the principal employed. The majority of the principals used a participating style as their primary decision-making role and a selling style as their secondary role. It was interesting to note that the secondary styles involved closer supervision than the primary styles. It would tend to indicate that the principals started with a more optimistic assessment of the team members abilities. Significant differences in the leadership styles based on team composition were not noted. Differences in training rating and leadership style were not noted, indicating that the leadership-match component of the theory was not being utilized to a great extent.

A secondary analysis revealed that schools using the collaborative style perceived planning to be more effective. Since there was a small representation of the other styles, however, it was difficult to conclude that use of this style of leadership would result in a better perception of the results of decision-making. This may be further emphasized, since the theory advocates that no one style is best, but rather that the match is what is of importance.

When data on the training levels by leadership style were analyzed, it was determined that there was a greater match between leadership style and training in the area of planning for the improvement of reading than for the area of planning for the improvement of mathematics. Chi-square analysis indicated that schools matching leadership style to training level in reading, perceived the planning for the area of reading to be more effective.

The Readiness-Match instruments were also utilized in this study of the application of the Hersey-Blanchard model. Results indicated a high consensus between the principal and

the team member on the evaluations. Results indicated, however, that the model was not being employed in the majority of cases. Principals appeared to use a closer supervisory approach than was warranted given the ability and willingness levels of the evaluated team members. Analysis revealed that in the area of planning for the improvement of mathematics, principals appropriately used the delegative leadership style when working with team members of readiness level 4. They also appropriately matched participative styles with readiness level 3. Principals tended to over-supervise using "telling" and "selling" styles when supervising team members of readiness level 3.5. Analysis of whether or not perceived effectiveness ratings differed by leadership-match were found to be not-significant for all areas when viewed by degree of discrepancy for the school groupings. When these data were analyzed as a yes/no match, significant differences were determined for the area of student attendance, but results appeared mixed. It was noted that few schools matched in this area and that determination of readiness level was difficult to assess in this area. When the data were analyzed on an individual basis, no significant differences were found between the leadership-match and the perceived effectiveness of planning.

The results of these analyses indicate that the Hersey-Blanchard Situational Leadership theory was not widely used in school planning at the sampled schools. Further, when training was the sole criteria for readiness, it was easier to determine a relationship between leadership-match and perceived effectiveness of training. When the Hersey-Blanchard scales incorporating willingness were employed, results were less clear. The small sample size made it difficult to conclude whether or not use of the model was related to perceived effectiveness of planning. It may be that as other authors have suggested, this model is more applicable to the business setting. Recommendations based on these findings follow:

19. Since the application of this theory could not be significantly supported, further

examination of the model is necessary. Use of the model should be tested not only against perception, but with tangible outcomes, as well.

20. Findings indicated that principals were using a closer supervision model than was indicated by the ability levels of the team members. If the Hersey-Blanchard model proves to be applicable to educational settings, then the theory should be followed. In cases where over- or under-supervision is occurring, principals should attempt to match leadership style to readiness level.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

This study examined decision-making in a selected population. In elucidating this feature of administration further, it is necessary to broaden the sample base. Further, it is of importance to examine in greater depth the outcomes of shared decision-making, and how the outcomes vary dependent on population. Determination of what factors lead to optimal decision-making is desirable for effective application of decision models.

The second area studied was the application of Hersey-Blanchard Situational Leadership model to local school planning and shared decision-making. Previous studies had revealed difficulties in the application of this model to educational settings. Examination of how the model functions with different samples from the field of education and on different tasks could serve to clarify its usefulness to the profession.

Questions for future researchers include:

PROCESS

1. How does the process of shared decision-making vary with different educational populations: urban, suburban, rural, private, and public, schools?

2. How does the process of shared decision-making vary with different educational populations: small, medium, and large schools?

3. How does the process of shared decision-making vary with different decision-making teams (where composition is more weighted with teachers, with parents, with administrators, with students)?

4. How does the process of shared decision-making vary with different decision-making issues?

OUTCOMES

5. How do the outcomes of shared decision-making vary with different educational populations: urban, suburban, rural, private, and public, schools?

6. How do the outcomes of shared decision-making vary with different educational populations: small, medium, and large schools?

7. How do the outcomes of shared decision-making vary with different decision-making teams (where composition is more weighted with teachers, with parents, with administrators, with students)?

8. How do the outcomes of shared decision-making vary with different decision-making issues?

APPLICATION

9. How does the application of the Hersey-Blanchard model of Situational Leadership vary with different educational populations: small, medium, and large schools?

10. How does the application of the Hersey-Blanchard model of Situational Leadership vary with different decision-making teams (where composition is more weighted with teachers, with parents, with administrators, with students)?

11. How does the application of the Hersey-Blanchard model of Situational

Leadership vary with different decision-making issues?

12. How does the application of the Hersey-Blanchard model of Situational Leadership vary with different educational populations: urban, suburban, rural, private, and public, schools?

SUMMARY

The area of shared decision-making has been explored in this sample of urban elementary schools. A great deal more needs to be done to determine optimum models for the utilization of this process. The questions posed for future researchers explore possible avenues of inquiry.

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APPENDICES

SCHOOL PLANNING QUESTIONNAIRE

A1

DATE __/__/__

IDENTIFYING INFORMATION:

SCHOOL _____ UNIT NUMBER _____ DISTRICT _____

PERSON COMPLETING FORM (PLEASE CHECK)

☐ PRINCIPAL ☐ ASST. PRINCIPAL ☐ TEACHER

☐ CAREER SERVICE ☐ PARENT ☐ COMMUNITY REPRESENTATIVE

☐ OTHER (PLEASE INDICATE) _____

1. Are you a member of this school's local school council? ☐ yes ☐ no
2. Please indicate the last level of education that you completed
3. If you are a teacher, please indicate your area of instruction (subject and/or grade level)
4. If you have teaching experience, please indicate your teaching experience in years _____ subjects/or grade taught _____
5. Please indicate the number of years that you have been at this school _____
6. Have you participated in school planning activities in the past?
☐ yes ☐ no
If yes, please describe when and the topic of planning.
7. Your age () 21-25 () 26-30 () 31-35 () 36-40 () 41-45 () 46-50
() 51-55 () 56-60 () 61-65 () Other
8. Sex ☐ Male ☐ Female
9. If you are the principal of the school, please indicate the number of years of administrative experience _____ (Please describe)
10. Are you familiar with the terms "shared decision-making" or "participative management"? ☐ yes ☐ no.

11. Have you taken classes, attended workshops or been specifically trained in the shared decision-making process?
 () Not at all () A little () Somewhat () A great deal () Very extensively
 Please describe:

12. Have you taken classes, attended workshops or been specifically trained in the area of mathematics?
 __Not at all__A little__ Somewhat__A great deal __ Very extensively
 Please describe:

13. Have you taken classes, attended workshops or been specifically trained in the area of reading?
 __ Not at all __ A little __ Somewhat __ A great deal __ Very extensively
 Please describe:

14. Please indicate the planning areas where you have participated in the decision-making process.

(see 15=EXTENT PARTICIPATED and 16=EXTENT WANTED TO PARTICIPATE)

AREA

15.

16

- 1 Planning for improvement of reading achievement
- 2 Planning for improvement of mathematics achievement
- 3 Planning for improvement of student attendance
- 4 Planning for improvement of teacher attendance
- 5 School budget
- 6 Textbook and/or instructional materials selection
- 7 Student discipline issues
- 8 Allocation of teachers or other school staff
- 9 Determining the instructional methods to be used with students
- 10 Determining the instructional objectives for the students at this site
- 11 Determining the format for school reports on student progress
- 12 Determining staff development programs
- 13 Determining the roles and responsibilities for staff
- 14 Planning for improvement of school climate
- 15 Planning for school beautification or maintenance
- 16 Establishing teaching schedules
- 17 Evaluation of school personnel

15. For the planning areas checked above, please indicate the extent to which you participate in the decision-making process using the following key:

1. **Make the decision, alone**
2. **Recommend decisions**
3. **Suggest possible alternatives**
4. **Gather or provide information**
5. **Make the decision as part of the group**
6. **Do not participate**

16. For the planning areas checked above, please indicate the extent to which you would like to participate in the decision-making process using the following key:

1. **Make the decision, alone**
2. **Recommend decisions**
3. **Suggest possible alternatives**
4. **Gather or provide information**
5. **Make the decision as part of the group**
6. **Do not participate**

ANALYSIS OF PLANNING IN FOUR AREAS: (READING ACHIEVEMENT, MATHEMATICS ACHIEVEMENT, STUDENT ATTENDANCE, TEACHER ATTENDANCE)

1. Describe the decision area(s) (ie. problem (s) to be solved) for the areas of: reading achievement, mathematics achievement, student attendance, and teacher attendance. Answer only for those areas in which you participated in the planning. What is your objective?

Reading

Mathematics

Student Attendance

Teacher Attendance

2. Indicate the frequency of participation in planning activities for each of these participant types.

Indicate the rating for each person category as applicable.

READING	
PRINCIPAL	__NEVER__SELDOM__USUALLY__ALWAYS
TEACHERS	__NEVER__SELDOM__USUALLY__ALWAYS
PARENTS	__NEVER__SELDOM__USUALLY__ALWAYS
CAREER SERVICE	__NEVER__SELDOM__USUALLY__ALWAYS
COM. REP.	__NEVER__SELDOM__USUALLY__ALWAYS
OTHER	__NEVER__SELDOM__USUALLY__ALWAYS
PLEASE INDICATE	
MATHEMATICS	
PRINCIPAL	__NEVER__SELDOM__USUALLY__ALWAYS
TEACHERS	__NEVER__SELDOM__USUALLY__ALWAYS
PARENTS	__NEVER__SELDOM__USUALLY__ALWAYS
CAREER SERVICE	__NEVER__SELDOM__USUALLY__ALWAYS
COM. REP.	__NEVER__SELDOM__USUALLY__ALWAYS
OTHER	__NEVER__SELDOM__USUALLY__ALWAYS
PLEASE INDICATE	

STUDENT ATTENDANCE

PRINCIPAL	<u> </u> NEVER <u> </u> SELDOM <u> </u> USUALLY <u> </u> ALWAYS	TOTAL
-----------	---	-------

TEACHERS	<u> </u> NEVER <u> </u> SELDOM <u> </u> USUALLY <u> </u> ALWAYS	TOTAL
----------	---	-------

PARENTS	<u> </u> NEVER <u> </u> SELDOM <u> </u> USUALLY <u> </u> ALWAYS	TOTAL
---------	---	-------

CAREER SERVICE	<u> </u> NEVER <u> </u> SELDOM <u> </u> USUALLY <u> </u> ALWAYS	TOTAL
----------------	---	-------

COM. REP.	<u> </u> NEVER <u> </u> SELDOM <u> </u> USUALLY <u> </u> ALWAYS	TOTAL
-----------	---	-------

OTHER	<u> </u> NEVER <u> </u> SELDOM <u> </u> USUALLY <u> </u> ALWAYS	TOTAL
-------	---	-------

PLEASE INDICATE

TEACHER ATTENDANCE

PRINCIPAL	<u> </u> NEVER <u> </u> SELDOM <u> </u> USUALLY <u> </u> ALWAYS	TOTAL
-----------	---	-------

TEACHERS	<u> </u> NEVER <u> </u> SELDOM <u> </u> USUALLY <u> </u> ALWAYS	TOTAL
----------	---	-------

PARENTS	<u> </u> NEVER <u> </u> SELDOM <u> </u> USUALLY <u> </u> ALWAYS	TOTAL
---------	---	-------

CAREER SERVICE	<u> </u> NEVER <u> </u> SELDOM <u> </u> USUALLY <u> </u> ALWAYS	TOTAL
----------------	---	-------

COM. REP.	<u> </u> NEVER <u> </u> SELDOM <u> </u> USUALLY <u> </u> ALWAYS	TOTAL
-----------	---	-------

OTHER	<u> </u> NEVER <u> </u> SELDOM <u> </u> USUALLY <u> </u> ALWAYS	TOTAL
-------	---	-------

PLEASE INDICATE

3. Who usually set the agenda for planning meetings?1 principal alone2 principal and other administrators3 assistant principal4 staff designees with/without principal5 teachers6 planning team (principal, teachers, career service, parents, community representatives, others)7 local school council**4. How much involvement did you have in making decisions about the following areas:**

Key: 0=NONE/ 4=HIGH

READING	MATHEMATICS	STUDENT ATTENDANCE	TEACHER ATTENDANCE
0	0	0	0
1	1	1	1
2	2	2	2
3	3	3	3
4	4	4	4

5. How much influence did you have in making decisions about the following areas:

Key: 0=NONE/ 4=HIGH

READING	MATHEMATICS	STUDENT ATTENDANCE	TEACHER ATTENDANCE
0	0	0	0
1	1	1	1
2	2	2	2
3	3	3	3
4	4	4	4

6. To what degree did shared decision-making take place at your school? (Use the key above in answering)

0 1 2 3 4

7. To what extent were plans communicated across all levels of the school? (Use the key above in answering)

0 1 2 3 4

8. To what extent was your participation in shared decision-making helpful to you? (Use the key above in answering)

0 1 2 3 4

9. Stuckwisch outlines five stages in decision-making. These are stated as:

- 1.Originating the issue
- 2.Establishing guidelines for resolution of the issue
- 3.Gathering information
- 4.Determining possible solutions
- 5.Choosing the solution

9a.Using the key above, please indicate the phases in which you were involved in planning: (Circle that apply)

READING	MATHEMATICS	STUDENT ATTENDANCE	TEACHER ATTENDANCE
1	1	1	1
2	2	2	2
3	3	3	3
4	4	4	4
5	5	5	5

9 b. Using the key above, please indicate the phases in which the group first became involved in planning: (Circle all that apply)

READING	MATHEMATICS	STUDENT ATTENDANCE	TEACHER ATTENDANCE
1	1	1	1
2	2	2	2
3	3	3	3
4	4	4	4
5	5	5	5

10. When did planning take place (Check all that apply)

- ☐ at the beginning of the year
☐ at the end of the first semester
☐ at the end of the year.

11. How frequently did planning take place (how often)

- ☒ weekly
☐ monthly
☐ quarterly
☐ yearly

12. Using the following key, please indicate the effect of the decision on you personally

Key: 0=None, 1=Little, 2=Some, 3=High, 4=Very High

READING	MATHEMATICS	STUDENT ATTENDANCE	TEACHER ATTENDANCE
---	---	---	---

13. Please indicate the effect of the decision on your school

Key: 0=None, 1=Little, 2=Some, 3=High, 4=Very High

READING	MATHEMATICS	STUDENT ATTENDANCE	TEACHER ATTENDANCE
---	---	---	---

14. How effective has your planning been in improving these areas?

Key: 0=None, 1=Little, 2=Some, 3=High, 4=Very High

READING	MATHEMATICS	STUDENT ATTENDANCE	TEACHER ATTENDANCE
---	---	---	---

15. To what extent were the decisions implemented or carried out?

Key: 0=None, 1=Little, 2=Some, 3=High, 4=Very High

READING	MATHEMATICS	STUDENT ATTENDANCE	TEACHER ATTENDANCE
---	---	---	---

16. Rate how satisfied you were with the decisions

Key: 0=None, 1=Little, 2=Some, 3=High, 4=Very High

READING

MATHEMATICS

STUDENT

ATTENDANCE

TEACHER

ATTENDANCE

17. How important to you was it to participate in decisions about the following areas?

Key: 0=NONE/ 4=HIGH

READING

MATHEMATICS

STUDENT

ATTENDANCE

TEACHER

ATTENDANCE

0

0

0

0

1

1

1

1

2

2

2

2

3

3

3

3

4

4

4

4

18. What would like to see changed about the planning process?
19. Were there any unexpected outcomes from your participation in shared decision-making as related to school planning?
20. What did you perceive to be the benefits of your participation in shared decision-making as related to school planning?
21. Please indicate your response by circling your opinion regarding these statements.
Key: 0=Never, 1=Rarely, 2= Occasionally, 3=Frequently, 4=Usually or Always

When the shared decision-making approach is used in school planning

Too much time is spent in the decision-making process

0=Never, 1=Rarely, 2= Occasionally, 3=Frequently, 4=Usually or Always

Participants should be trained in the shared decision-making process

0=Never, 1=Rarely, 2= Occasionally, 3=Frequently, 4=Usually or Always

Poor staff relationships could result

0=Never, 1=Rarely, 2= Occasionally, 3=Frequently, 4=Usually or Always

It is more difficult for the principal

0=Never, 1=Rarely, 2= Occasionally, 3=Frequently, 4=Usually or Always

It is more difficult for the teachers

0=Never, 1=Rarely, 2= Occasionally, 3=Frequently, 4=Usually or Always

Staff morale improves

0=Never, 1=Rarely, 2= Occasionally, 3=Frequently, 4=Usually or Always

Inter-school communication improves

0=Never, 1=Rarely, 2= Occasionally, 3=Frequently, 4=Usually or Always

It undermines the principal's authority

0=Never, 1=Rarely, 2= Occasionally, 3=Frequently, 4=Usually or Always

It improves the chances of accomplishing school goals

0=Never, 1=Rarely, 2= Occasionally, 3=Frequently, 4=Usually or Always

It improves staff motivation towards goal accomplishment

0=Never, 1=Rarely, 2= Occasionally, 3=Frequently, 4=Usually or Always

Intra-school communication improves

0=Never, 1=Rarely, 2= Occasionally, 3=Frequently, 4=Usually or Always

N=114

Percentages are adjusted for missing responses.

IDENTIFYING INFORMATION:

SCHOOL _____ UNIT NUMBER _ _ _ _ DISTRICT _ _

PERSON COMPLETING FORM (PLEASE CHECK)

15=13.2% PRINCIPAL 12=10.5% ASST. PRINCIPAL 70=61.4% TEACHER1=0.9% CAREER SERVICE 14=12.3% PARENT2=1.8% COMMUNITY REPRESENTATIVE __ OTHER (PLEASE INDICATE) _____

1. Are you a member of this school's local school council? 84=81.5% yes 40=38.5% no
2. Please indicate the last level of education that you completed Mean=4(BA+) Mode: 92=88.5%(BA+)
H.S.=6 (5.8%), H.S.+=6 (5.8%), BA=18 (17.3%), BA+=8 (7.7%), MA=40 (38.5%), MA+=20 (19.2%), PhD=6 (5.8%)
3. If you are a teacher, please indicate your area of instruction (subject and/or grade level) Area Match 92=88.5% Yes, 14=13.2% No
4. If you have teaching experience, please indicate your teaching (Mean=17.20 yrs. 4.714 S.D. 2.192
experience in years Yrs. Exp. Code: 1-4=1, 5-8=2, 9-12=3, 13-16=4, 17-20=5, 21-24=6, 25-28=7, 29-32=8, 33-36=9,
37-39=10, 40-42=11
subjects/or grade taught _____
5. Please indicate the number of years that you have been at this school _____
6. Have you participated in school planning activities in the past? 82 (90.8%) yes 9 (9.2%) no
If yes, please describe when and the topic of planning.
7. Your age (0) 21-25 (5=5.8%) 26-30 (5=5.8%) 31-35 (17=19.8%) 36-40 (14=16.3%) 41-45 (13=15.1%)
46-50 (14=16.3%) 51-55 (12=14%) 56-60 (17=19.8%) 61-65 (1=1.2%) Other Mean=5.408 S.D. 1.832 yrs 6=46-50
8. Sex (20=18.9%) Male (86=81.2%) Female
9. If you are the principal of the school, please indicate the number of
years of administrative experience _____ Mean=4.4 yrs. Mode: 61.5% 3 yrs experience
10. Are you familiar with the terms "shared decision-making" or
"participative management"? 97=92.4% yes 8=7.62% no

11. Have you taken classes, attended workshops or been specifically trained in the shared decision-making process?

(42=39.6%) Not at all (21=19.8%) A little (23=21.7%) Somewhat (16=15.1%) A great deal (4=3.8%)
Very extensively Please describe: Mean=1.2 (A little)

12. Have you taken classes, attended workshops or been specifically trained in the area of mathematics?

(25=23.8%) Not at all (20=19.1%) A little (31=29.5%) Somewhat (23=21.7%) A great deal (6=5.7%)
Very extensively Mean=1.7 (Somewhat) Please describe:

13. Have you taken classes, attended workshops or been specifically trained in the area of reading?

(15=14.7%) Not at all (9=8.8%) A little (32=31.4%) Somewhat (34=33.3%) A great deal (12=11.8%)
Very extensively Please describe: (Mean=2.2 Somewhat)

14. Please indicate the planning areas where you have participated in the decision-making process.

(see 15=EXTENT PARTICIPATED and 16=EXTENT WANTED TO PARTICIPATE)

AREA	15.	16
1 Planning for improvement of reading achievement	5	5
2 Planning for improvement of mathematics achievement	5	5
3 Planning for improvement of student attendance	5	5
4 Planning for improvement of teacher attendance	5	5
5 School budget	5	5
6 Textbook and/or instructional materials selection	5	5
7 Student discipline issues	5	5
8 Allocation of teachers or other school staff	5	5
9 Determining the instructional methods to be used with students	5	5
10 Determining the instructional objectives for the students at this site	5	5
11 Determining the format for school reports on student progress	5	5
12 Determining staff development programs	5	5
13 Determining the roles and responsibilities for staff	5	5
14 Planning for improvement of school climate	5	5
15 Planning for school beautification or maintenance	5	5
16 Establishing teaching schedules	5	5
17 Evaluation of school personnel	5	5

15. For the planning areas checked above, please indicate the extent to which you participate in the decision-making process using the following key: (Significant differences noted for the following items: Chi-Square)

1. Make the decision, alone	1-No	7-85.1 P<.000	13 - 85.4 p<.000
2. Recommend decisions	2-No	8-104.795 p<.000	14- 159.139 p<.000
3. Suggest possible alternatives	3-No	9-127.325 p<.000	15 - 83.7 p<.000
4. Gather or provide information	4-104.943 p<.000	10-No	16 - 53.6 p<.000
5. Make the decision as part of the group	5-118.8 p<.000	11- 51.01 p<.000	17 -No
6. Do not participate	6- 85.9 p<.000	12- 134.5 p<.000	

16. For the planning areas checked above, please indicate the extent to which you would like to participate in the decision-making process using the following key:

1. Make the decision, alone
2. Recommend decisions
3. Suggest possible alternatives
4. Gather or provide information
5. Make the decision as part of the group
6. Do not participate

ANALYSIS OF PLANNING IN FOUR AREAS: (READING ACHIEVEMENT, MATHEMATICS ACHIEVEMENT, STUDENT ATTENDANCE, TEACHER ATTENDANCE)

1. Describe the decision area(s) (ie. problem (s) to be solved) for the areas of: reading achievement, mathematics achievement, student attendance, and teacher attendance. Answer only for those areas in which you participated in the planning. *What is your objective?*

Reading

Mathematics

Student Attendance

Teacher Attendance

2. Indicate the frequency of participation in planning activities for each of these participant types.

Indicate the rating for each person category as applicable.

READING

PRINCIPAL	__NEVER__SELDOM__USUALLY__ALWAYS	TOTAL
(Mean=2.550 S.D.=.654)		

TEACHERS	__NEVER__SELDOM__USUALLY__ALWAYS	TOTAL
(Mean=2.571 S.D.=.617)		

PARENTS	__NEVER__SELDOM__USUALLY__ALWAYS	TOTAL
(Mean=1.590 S.D.=.932)		

CAREER SERVICE	__NEVER__SELDOM__USUALLY__ALWAYS	TOTAL
(Mean=.926 S.D.=1.041)		

COM. REP.	__NEVER__SELDOM__USUALLY__ALWAYS	TOTAL
(Mean=1.408 S.D.=1.022)		

OTHER	__NEVER__SELDOM__USUALLY__ALWAYS	TOTAL
PLEASE INDICATE (Mean=.800 S.D.=.258)		

MATHEMATICS

PRINCIPAL	__NEVER__SELDOM__USUALLY__ALWAYS	TOTAL
(Mean=2.544 S.D.=.829)		

TEACHERS	__NEVER__SELDOM__USUALLY__ALWAYS	TOTAL
(Mean=2.500 S.D.=.790)		

PARENTS	__NEVER__SELDOM__USUALLY__ALWAYS	TOTAL
(Mean=1.463 S.D.=1.006)		

CAREER SERVICE	__NEVER__SELDOM__USUALLY__ALWAYS	TOTAL
(Mean=.949 S.D.=1.057)		

COM. REP.	__NEVER__SELDOM__USUALLY__ALWAYS	TOTAL
(Mean=1.254 S.D.=1.031)		

OTHER	__NEVER__SELDOM__USUALLY__ALWAYS	TOTAL
PLEASE INDICATE (Mean=.824 S.D.=1.015)		

STUDENT ATTENDANCE

PRINCIPAL __NEVER__SELDOM__USUALLY__ALWAYS TOTAL
(Mean=2.758 S.D.=.607)

TEACHERS __NEVER__SELDOM__USUALLY__ALWAYS TOTAL
(Mean=2.642 S.D.=.658)

PARENTS __NEVER__SELDOM__USUALLY__ALWAYS TOTAL
(Mean=2.043 S.D.=.859)

CAREER __NEVER__SELDOM__USUALLY__ALWAYS TOTAL
SERVICE (Mean=1.321 S.D.=.147)

COM. REP. __NEVER__SELDOM__USUALLY__ALWAYS TOTAL
(Mean=1.458 S.D.=1.023)

OTHER __NEVER__SELDOM__USUALLY__ALWAYS TOTAL
PLEASE INDICATE (Mean=1.158 S.D.=1.259)

TEACHER ATTENDANCE

PRINCIPAL __NEVER__SELDOM__USUALLY__ALWAYS TOTAL
(Mean=2.771 S.D.=.863)

TEACHERS __NEVER__SELDOM__USUALLY__ALWAYS TOTAL
(Mean=2.522 S.D.=.785)

PARENTS __NEVER__SELDOM__USUALLY__ALWAYS TOTAL
(Mean=1.43 S.D.=.980)

CAREER __NEVER__SELDOM__USUALLY__ALWAYS TOTAL
SERVICE (Mean=.865 S.D.=.991)

COM. REP. __NEVER__SELDOM__USUALLY__ALWAYS TOTAL
(Mean=.868 S.D.=.981)

OTHER __NEVER__SELDOM__USUALLY__ALWAYS TOTAL
PLEASE INDICATE (Mean=.733 S.D.=1.033)

3. Who usually set the agenda for planning meetings? (Mean= 4.94 S.D.=1.886)

1 principal alone (10=10.6%)

2 principal and other administrators (5=5.3%)

3 assistant principal (3=3.2%)

4 staff designees with/without principal (18=19.2%)

5 teachers (2=3.2%)

6 planning team (principal, teachers, career service, parents, community representatives, others) (41=43.6%)

7 local school council (14=14.9%)

4. How much involvement did you have in making decisions about the following areas:

Key: 0=NONE/ 4=HIGH

READING	MATHEMATICS	STUDENT ATTENDANCE	TEACHER ATTENDANCE
0	0	0	0
1	1	1	1
2	2	2	2
3	3	3	3
4	4	4	4
Mean=2.7	Mean=2.3	Mean=2.6	Mean=2.033
S.D.=1.363	S.D.=1.54	S.D.=1.483	S.D.=1.632

5. How much influence did you have in making decisions about the following areas:

Key: 0=NONE/ 4=HIGH

READING	MATHEMATICS	STUDENT ATTENDANCE	TEACHER ATTENDANCE
0	0	0	0
1	1	1	1
2	2	2	2
3	3	3	3
4	4	4	4
Mean=2.573 S.D.=1.344	Mean=2.3 S.D.=1.424	Mean=2.538 S.D.=1.348	Mean=1.944 S.D.=1.575

6. To what degree did shared decision-making take place at your school? (Use the key above in answering) (Mean=3.240 S.D.=.754)

0 1 2 3 4

7. To what extent were plans communicated across all levels of the school? (Use the key above in answering) (Mean=3.220 S.D.=.811)

0 1 2 3 4

8. To what extent was your participation in shared decision-making helpful to you? (Use the key above in answering) (Mean=3.300 S.D.=.847)

0 1 2 3 4

9. Stuckwisch outlines five stages in decision-making. These are stated as:

- 1.Originating the issue
- 2.Establishing guidelines for resolution of the issue
- 3.Gathering information
- 4.Determining possible solutions
- 5.Choosing the solution

9a.Using the key above, please indicate the phases in which you were involved in planning: (Circle that apply) (Number =%Yes)

READING	MATHEMATICS	STUDENT ATTENDANCE	TEACHER ATTENDANCE
1 (31.9)	1 (27.4)	1 (25.7)	1 (22.1)
2 (38.1)	2 (33.6)	2 (35.4)	2 (23.9)
3 (46.9)	3 (43.4)	3 (40.7)	3 (25.7)
4 (59.3)	4 (55.8)	4 (60.2)	4 (43.4)
5 (46.0)	5 (40.7)	5 (41.6)	5 (30.1)

9 b. Using the key above, please indicate the phases in which the group first became involved in planning: (Circle all that apply)

READING	MATHEMATICS	STUDENT ATTENDANCE	TEACHER ATTENDANCE
1 (33.9)	1 (33.0)	1 (26.6)	1 (23.8)
2 (37.6)	2 (33.0)	2 (33.0)	2 (25.7)
3 (49.5)	3 (41.3)	3 (44.0)	3 (30.3)
4 (40.4)	4 (35.8)	4 (43.1)	4 (26.6)
5 (33.9)	5 (29.4)	5 (29.4)	5 (22.0)

10. When did planning take place (Check all that apply)

- ☐ at the beginning of the year (77.7 %)

☐ at the end of the first semester (55.3 %)

☐ at the end of the year. (41.8 %)

11. How frequently did planning take place (how often) (Mean=3.15=Monthly)

- 4 weekly (41.4)

 3 monthly (35.4)

 2 quarterly (20.2)

 1 yearly (3.0)

12. Using the following key, please indicate the effect of the decision on you personally

Key: 0=None, 1=Little, 2=Some, 3=High, 4=Very High

READING	MATHEMATICS	STUDENT ATTENDANCE	TEACHER ATTENDANCE
Mean=2.77 S.D.=1.252	Mean=2.444 S.D.=1.350	Mean=2.548 S.D.=1.383	Mean=2.275 S.D.=1.583

13. Please indicate the effect of the decision on your school

Key: 0=None, 1=Little, 2=Some, 3=High, 4=Very High

READING	MATHEMATICS	STUDENT ATTENDANCE	TEACHER ATTENDANCE
Mean=3.180 S.D.=.996	Mean=3.012 S.D.=1.079	Mean=2.976 S.D.=1.144	Mean=2.701 S.D.=1.319

14. How effective has your planning been in improving these areas?

Key: 0=None, 1=Little, 2=Some, 3=High, 4=Very High

READING	MATHEMATICS	STUDENT ATTENDANCE	TEACHER ATTENDANCE
Mean=2.791 S.D.=.883	Mean=2.634 S.D.=1.000	Mean=2.623 S.D.=1.052	Mean=2.264 S.D.=1.278

15. To what extent were the decisions implemented or carried out?

Key: 0=None, 1=Little, 2=Some, 3=High, 4=Very High

READING	MATHEMATICS	STUDENT ATTENDANCE	TEACHER ATTENDANCE
Mean=3.149 S.D.=.870	Mean=2.881 S.D.=1.023	Mean=2.967 S.D.=1.026	Mean=2.753 S.D.=1.199

16. Rate how satisfied you were with the decisions

Key: 0=None, 1=Little, 2=Some, 3=High, 4=Very High

READING

MATHEMATICS

STUDENT

ATTENDANCE

TEACHER

ATTENDANCE

Mean=3.221

Mean=2.939

Mean=3.103

Mean=2.890

S.D.=.726

S.D.=.986

S.D.=.968

S.D.=1.149

17. How important to you was it to participate in decisions about the following areas?

Key: 0=NONE/ 4=HIGH

READING

MATHEMATICS

STUDENT

ATTENDANCE

TEACHER

ATTENDANCE

0

0

0

0

1

1

1

1

2

2

2

2

3

3

3

3

4

4

4

4

Mean=3.4

Mean=3.2

Mean=3.1

Mean=2.7

S.D.=.943

S.D.=1.134

S.D.=1.165

S.D.=1.4

18. What would like to see changed about the planning process?

19. Were there any unexpected outcomes from your participation in shared decision-making as related to school planning?

20. What did you perceive to be the benefits of your participation in shared decision-making as related to school planning?

21. Please indicate your response by circling your opinion regarding these statements.

Key: 0=Never, 1=Rarely, 2= Occasionally, 3=Frequently, 4=Usually or Always

(*=Frequently)

When the shared decision-making approach is used in school planning

Too much time is spent in the decision-making process

0=Never, 1=Rarely, 2= Occasionally, 3=Frequently, 4=Usually or Always

(Mean=1.65 S.D.=.98 =Occasionally)

Participants should be trained in the shared decision-making process

0=Never, 1=Rarely, 2= Occasionally, 3=Frequently, 4=Usually or Always

(Mean=3.07 S.D.=1.07*=Frequently)

Poor staff relationships could result

0=Never, 1=Rarely, 2= Occasionally, 3=Frequently, 4=Usually or Always

(Mean=1.383 S.D.=.978=Rarely)

It is more difficult for the principal

0=Never, 1=Rarely, 2= Occasionally, 3=Frequently, 4=Usually or Always

(Mean=1.79 S.D.=1.77=Occasionally)

It is more difficult for the teachers

0=Never, 1=Rarely, 2= Occasionally, 3=Frequently, 4=Usually or Always

(Mean=1.69 S.D.=1.088=Occasionally)

Staff morale improves

0=Never, 1=Rarely, 2= Occasionally, 3=Frequently, 4=Usually or Always

(Mean=3.358 S.D.=.693*=Frequently)

Inter-school communication improves

0=Never, 1=Rarely, 2= Occasionally, 3=Frequently, 4=Usually or Always

(Mean=3.368 S.D.=.681*=Frequently)

It undermines the principal's authority

0=Never, 1=Rarely, 2= Occasionally, 3=Frequently, 4=Usually or Always

(Mean=.867 S.D.=.797=Rarely)

It improves the chances of accomplishing school goals

0=Never, 1=Rarely, 2= Occasionally, 3=Frequently, 4=Usually or Always

(Mean=3.5 S.D.=.734*=usually-always)

It improves staff motivation towards goal accomplishment

0=Never, 1=Rarely, 2= Occasionally, 3=Frequently, 4=Usually or Always

(Mean=3.462 S.D.=.682*=usually-always)

Intra-school communication improves

0=Never, 1=Rarely, 2= Occasionally, 3=Frequently, 4=Usually or Always

(Mean=3.303 S.D.=.858*=Frequently)

SCHOOL PLANNING QUESTIONNAIRE

A3

DATE / /

N=114

Percentages are adjusted for missing responses

[Key: Prn. & Asst. Prn.=1 - 27(23.7%), T, Couns. & C.S.=2 - 71(62.2%) Par. & Com. Rep. =4 - 16(14.0%)]

IDENTIFYING INFORMATION:

SCHOOL UNIT NUMBER DISTRICT

PERSON COMPLETING FORM (PLEASE CHECK)

 PRINCIPAL ASST. PRINCIPAL TEACHER

 CAREER SERVICE PARENT COMMUNITY REPRESENTATIVE

 OTHER (PLEASE INDICATE)

1. Are you a member of this school's local school council? yes no ($\chi^2=34.2$ p<.000)

Prn.=Yes, Asst. Prn.=No, Teachers 70.8%=No, Career Service=No, Community Rep. 50%=Yes, Parents 69.2%=Yes

2. Please indicate the last level of education that you completed

(AD: MA+= 43.5, T: MA= 47.8, P: H.S.= 37.5, , $\chi^2=84.5$, p<.000)

3. If you are a teacher, please indicate your area of instruction (subject and/or grade level)

4. If you have teaching experience, please indicate your teaching experience in years Area match (AD: Y=100%, T: Y=97.2%, P: Y=25%, $\chi^2=65.5$ p<.000)
subjects/or grade staught

5. Please indicate the number of years that you have been at this school

6. Have you participated in school planning activities in the past?

 yes no (AD: Y=100%, T: Y=93.9%, P: Y=57.1% $\chi^2=20.776$, p<.000)

If yes, please describe when and the topic of planning.

7. Your age () 21-25 () 26-30 () 31-35 () 36-40 () 41-45 () 46-50 ($\chi^2=72.9$ p<.012, Prn.=46-50, () 51-55 () 56-60 () 61-65 () Other AP=51-60, Couns=46-50, 36-40, 61-65, other, T=46-50, 41-45,

C.S.=36-40, Com. Rep.=31-35, 36-40, Par.=36-40)

8. Sex () Male () Female (AD: 50%=F, T: 91.4%=F, P: 87.5%=F, $\chi^2=21.027$, p<.000)

9. If you are the principal of the school, please indicate the number of years of administrative experience (Please describe)

10. Are you familiar with the terms "shared decision-making" or "participative management"? yes no. (AD: Y=100%, T: Y=95.7%, P: Y=68.8%, $\chi^2=16.7$, p<.002)

11. Have you taken classes, attended workshops or been specifically trained in the shared decision-making process?
 () Not at all () A little () Somewhat () A great deal () Very extensively
 Please describe: (Not Significant)

12. Have you taken classes, attended workshops or been specifically trained in the area of mathematics?
 __Not at all__ A little__ Somewhat__ A great deal __ Very extensively
 Please describe: (Mean fell in range of: AD: 1.9 somewhat, T: 1.9 somewhat, P: .26 not at all $X^2=28.008$, $p<.000$)

13. Have you taken classes, attended workshops or been specifically trained in the area of reading?
 __ Not at all __ A little __ Somewhat __ A great deal __ Very extensively
 Please describe: (Mean AD: 2.6 a great deal, T: 2.4 somewhat, P: .42 not at all. $X^2=54.5$ $p<.000$)

14. Please indicate the planning areas where you have participated in the decision-making process.

(see 15=EXTENT PARTICIPATED and 16=EXTENT WANTED TO PARTICIPATE)

AREA	Significant X^2 noted	15.			16.		
		AD	T	P	AD	T	P
		MODE			MODE		
1	Planning for improvement of reading achievement						
2	Planning for improvement of mathematics achievement						
3	Planning for improvement of student attendance	5	5	5			
4	Planning for improvement of teacher attendance	5	5	6			
5	School budget						
6	Textbook and/or instructional materials selection	5	5	5,4,6	5	5	5
7	Student discipline issues	5	5	5	5	5	5
8	Allocation of teachers or other school staff	5	6	6	5	5	5
9	Determining the instructional methods to be used with students				5	5	5
10	Determining the instructional objectives for the students at this site	5	5	5	5	5	5
11	Determining the format for school reports on student progress				5	5	5
12	Determining staff development programs				5	5	5
13	Determining the roles and responsibilities for staff						
14	Planning for improvement of school climate						
15	Planning for school beautification or maintenance				5	5	5
16	Establishing teaching schedules	5	5	6			
17	Evaluation of school personnel	1	6	6			

15. For the planning areas checked above, please indicate the extent to which you participate in the decision-making process using the following key: (Significant differences noted for the following items X^2)

	1. No	9. No
1. Make the decision, alone	2. No	10. 24.071 $p < .007$
2. Recommend decisions	3. 18.990 $p < .04$	11. No
3. Suggest possible alternatives	4. 29.093 $p < .001$	12. No
4. Gather or provide information	5. No	13. No
5. Make the decision as part of the group	6. 23.836 $p < .008$	14. No
6. Do not participate	7. 19.361 $p < .04$	15. 34.482 $p < .003$
	8. 42.007 $p < .000$	16. 40.349 $p < .002$ 17. 36.973, $p < .000$

16. For the planning areas checked above, please indicate the extent to which you would like to participate in the decision-making process using the following key: (Significant differences noted for the following items X^2)

	1. No	9. 32.5 $p < .001$
1. Make the decision, alone	2. No	10. 19.3 $p < .04$
2. Recommend decisions	3. No	11. 12.5 $p < .05$
3. Suggest possible alternatives	4. No	12. 38.3 $p < .000$
4. Gather or provide information	5. No	13. No
5. Make the decision as part of the group	6. 21.6 $p < .008$	14. No
6. Do not participate	7. 17.4 $p < .03$	15. 35.4 $p < .002$
	8. 23.7 $p < .02$	16. No
		17. No

ANALYSIS OF PLANNING IN FOUR AREAS: (READING ACHIEVEMENT, MATHEMATICS ACHIEVEMENT, STUDENT ATTENDANCE, TEACHER ATTENDANCE)

1. Describe the decision area(s) (ie. problem (s) to be solved) for the areas of: reading achievement, mathematics achievement, student attendance, and teacher attendance. Answer only for those areas in which you participated in the planning. *What is your objective?*

Reading

Mathematics

Student Attendance

Teacher Attendance

2. Indicate the frequency of participation in planning activities for each of these participant types.

Indicate the rating for each person category as applicable. (Only significant differences are listed.)

READING

PRINCIPAL _NEVER_SELDOM_USUALLY_ALWAYS TOTAL

TEACHERS _NEVER_SELDOM_USUALLY_ALWAYS TOTAL

PARENTS _NEVER_SELDOM_USUALLY_ALWAYS TOTAL

CAREER _NEVER_SELDOM_USUALLY_ALWAYS TOTAL
SERVICE

COM. REP. _NEVER_SELDOM_USUALLY_ALWAYS TOTAL

OTHER _NEVER_SELDOM_USUALLY_ALWAYS TOTAL

PLEASE INDICATE

MATHEMATICS

PRINCIPAL _NEVER_SELDOM_USUALLY_ALWAYS TOTAL

TEACHERS _NEVER_SELDOM_USUALLY_ALWAYS TOTAL

PARENTS _NEVER_SELDOM_USUALLY_ALWAYS TOTAL

CAREER _NEVER_SELDOM_USUALLY_ALWAYS TOTAL

SERVICE ($\chi^2=16.462$ $p<.011$ ΔD : Nev. 37.5%, Sel. 37.5%, T. Nev. 62.5% P. Usu. 37.5%, Sel. 37.5%)

COM. REP. _NEVER_SELDOM_USUALLY_ALWAYS TOTAL

OTHER _NEVER_SELDOM_USUALLY_ALWAYS TOTAL

PLEASE INDICATE

STUDENT ATTENDANCE

PRINCIPAL __NEVER__SELDOM__USUALLY__ALWAYS TOTAL

TEACHERS __NEVER__SELDOM__USUALLY__ALWAYS TOTAL

PARENTS __NEVER__SELDOM__USUALLY__ALWAYS TOTAL

CAREER SERVICE __NEVER__SELDOM__USUALLY__ALWAYS TOTAL

COM. REP. __NEVER__SELDOM__USUALLY__ALWAYS TOTAL

OTHER __NEVER__SELDOM__USUALLY__ALWAYS TOTAL
PLEASE INDICATE

TEACHER ATTENDANCE

PRINCIPAL __NEVER__SELDOM__USUALLY__ALWAYS TOTAL
($\chi^2 = 18.127$ p<.006 AD: Alw. 46.7%,Usu. 40.01%, T Alw. 77.8, P Usu. 67.2%)

TEACHERS __NEVER__SELDOM__USUALLY__ALWAYS TOTAL

PARENTS __NEVER__SELDOM__USUALLY__ALWAYS TOTAL

CAREER SERVICE __NEVER__SELDOM__USUALLY__ALWAYS TOTAL
($\chi^2 = 17.846$ p<.007 AD: Sel. 72.7%, T Nev. 54.3%, P Nev. 42.9%,Usu. 42.9%)

COM. REP. __NEVER__SELDOM__USUALLY__ALWAYS TOTAL

OTHER __NEVER__SELDOM__USUALLY__ALWAYS TOTAL
PLEASE INDICATE

3. Who usually set the agenda for planning meetings?

1_principal alone

2_principal and other administrators

3_assistant principal

4_staff designees with/without principal

5_teachers

6_planning team (principal, teachers, career service, parents, community representatives, others)

7_local school council

4. How much involvement did you have in making decisions about the following areas:

Key: 0=NONE/ 4=HIGH

READING	MATHEMATICS	STUDENT ATTENDANCE	TEACHER ATTENDANCE
0	0	0	0
1	1	1	1
2F=3.3, Df=2 p<.04	2	2 F=6.6, Df=2 p<.003	2 F=4.9, Df=2 p<.01
3	3	3	3
4	4	4	4
$\chi^2 = 18.568$ p<.017 AD: 73.9%=4 T: 33.9%=4 P: 30.8%=2-3	$\chi^2 = 15.942$ p<.043 AD: 80.9%=4 T: 24.2%=4-3 P: 30.8%=2-3	$\chi^2 = 25.705$ p<.001 AD: 75%=4 T: 28.8%=4-0 P: 33.3%=4-2	$\chi^2 = 21.111$ p<.007 AD: 80.8%=4 T: 36.4%=0 P: 16.7%=4-2-0

5. How much influence did you have in making decisions about the following areas:

Key: 0=NONE/ 4=HIGH

READING	MATHEMATICS	STUDENT ATTENDANCE	TEACHER ATTENDANCE
0	0	0	0
1	1	1	1
2	2	2 F=5.0, Df=2 p<.009	2 F=5.3 Df=2 p<.007
3	3	3	3
4	4	4 $\chi^2=22.802$ p<.004 AD: 58.3%=4 T: 31.6%=3 P: 50%=2	4 $\chi^2=26.106$ p<.001 AD: 52.2%=4 T: 37.5%=0 P: 18.2%=4-0-2

6. To what degree did shared decision-making take place at your school? (Use the key above in answering)

0 1 2 3 4 (Not Significant)

7. To what extent were plans communicated across all levels of the school? (Use the key above in answering)

0 1 2 3 4 (Not Significant)

8. To what extent was your participation in shared decision-making helpful to you? (Use the key above in answering)

0 1 2 3 4 (Not Significant)

9. Stuckwisch outlines five stages in decision-making. These are stated as:

1. Originating the issue
2. Establishing guidelines for resolution of the issue
3. Gathering information
4. Determining possible solutions
5. Choosing the solution

9a. Using the key above, please indicate the phases in which you were involved in planning: (Circle that apply) (Only significant differences are listed.)

READING	MATHEMATICS	STUDENT ATTENDANCE	TEACHER ATTENDANCE
1	1	1	1
2	2	2	2
3	3	3	3
4	4	4	4
5	5	5	5

9 b. Using the key above, please indicate the phases in which the group first became involved in planning: (Circle all that apply)

READING	MATHEMATICS	STUDENT ATTENDANCE	TEACHER ATTENDANCE
1	1	1	1 <u>AD</u> <u>T</u> <u>P</u>
2	2	2	$\chi^2=8.239$ $p<.016$ -2 45.8% 22.9% 6.7%
3	3	3	$\chi^2=5.863$ $p<.053$ ---3 50% 25.7% 20%
4	4	4	$\chi^2=6.108$ $p<.047$ -4 45.8% 20% 26.7%
5	5	5	5

10. When did planning take place (Check all that apply) (Not Significant)

☐ at the beginning of the year
☐ at the end of the first semester
☐ at the end of the year.

11. How frequently did planning take place (how often) (Not Significant)

4 weekly
3 monthly
2 quarterly
1 yearly

12. Using the following key, please indicate the effect of the decision on you personally

Key: 0=None, 1=Little, 2=Some, 3=High, 4=Very High

READING	MATHEMATICS	STUDENT ATTENDANCE	TEACHER ATTENDANCE
---	---	$\chi^2=24.8$ $p<.002$ AD: 65% 2=4 T: 28% 4 P: 36.4% 2	$\chi^2=23.023$ $p<.003$ AD: 63.6% 4 T: 30.6% 4 P: 33.3% 0-2

13. Please indicate the effect of the decision on your school (Not significant)

Key: 0=None, 1=Little, 2=Some, 3=High, 4=Very High

READING	MATHEMATICS	STUDENT ATTENDANCE	TEACHER ATTENDANCE
---	---	---	---

14. How effective has your planning been in improving these areas? (Not Significant)

Key: 0=None, 1=Little, 2=Some, 3=High, 4=Very High

READING	MATHEMATICS	STUDENT ATTENDANCE	TEACHER ATTENDANCE
---	---	---	---

15. To what extent were the decisions implemented or carried out? (Not Significant)

Key: 0=None, 1=Little, 2=Some, 3=High, 4=Very High

READING	MATHEMATICS	STUDENT ATTENDANCE	TEACHER ATTENDANCE
---	---	---	---

16. Rate how satisfied you were with the decisions (Not Significant)

Key: 0=None, 1=Little, 2=Some, 3=High, 4=Very High

READING	MATHEMATICS	STUDENT ATTENDANCE	TEACHER ATTENDANCE
---------	-------------	-----------------------	-----------------------

17. How important to you was it to participate in decisions about the following areas?

Key: 0=NONE/ 4=HIGH

READING	MATHEMATICS	STUDENT ATTENDANCE	TEACHER ATTENDANCE
---------	-------------	-----------------------	-----------------------

0	0	0	0
1	1	1	1
2	2	2	2
3	3	3	3
4	4	4	4
$X^2=17.031$ $p<.03$ $AD:75\%=4$ $T:62\%=4$ $P:50\%=4$ $(Mean=AD3.54,$ $T:3.41,P:3.08)$	Not Significant $(Mean=AD3.48,$ $T:3.08,P:3.08)$	$X^2=17.7$ $p<.027$ $AD:53.3\%=4$ $T:39.3\%=4$ $P:45.5\%=4$ $(Mean=AD2.13,$ $T:2.81,P:3.0)$	$X^2=20.18$ $p<.010$ $AD:68.2\%=4$ $T:34.7\%=4$ $P:40.0\%=1$ $(Mean=AD3.45,$ $T:2.53,P:1.60)$

18. What would like to see changed about the planning process?

19. Were there any unexpected outcomes from your participation in shared decision-related to school planning?

20. What did you perceive to be the benefits of your participation in shared decision-related to school planning?

21. Please indicate your response by circling your opinion regarding these statements.

Key: 0=Never, 1=Rarely, 2= Occasionally, 3=Frequently, 4=Usually or Always

When the shared decision-making approach is used in school planning

1. Too much time is spent in the decision-making process

0 1 2 3 4

(Mean=AD:1.54, T:1.72, P:1.46) Not Significant)

2. Participants should be trained in the shared decision-making process

0 1 2 3 4

(Mean=AD:3.29, T:3.09, P:2.54) $\chi^2=20.337$ $p<.009$

3. Poor staff relationships could result

0 1 2 3 4

(Mean=AD:1.21, T:1.44, P:1.38) Not significant

4. It is more difficult for the principal

0 1 2 3 4

(Mean=AD:1.79, T:1.80, P:1.77) Not Significant

5. It is more difficult for the teachers

0 1 2 3 4

(Mean=AD:1.91, T:1.86, P:1.54) $\chi^2=16.548$ $p<.035$

6. Staff morale improves

0 1 2 3 4

(Mean=AD:3.33, T:3.43, P:3.0) Not significant

7. Inter-school communication improves

0 1 2 3 4

(Mean=AD:3.42, T:3.40, P:3.1) Not Significant

8. It undermines the principal's authority

0 1 2 3 4

(Mean=AD:.83, T:.87, P:.92) Not Significant

9. It improves the chances of accomplishing school goals

0 1 2 3 4

(Mean=AD:3.6, T:3.5, P:3.4) Not Significant

10. It improves staff motivation towards goal accomplishment

0 1 2 3 4

(Mean=AD:3.54, T:3.51, P:3.08) Not Significant

11. Intra-school communication improves

0 1 2 3 4

(Mean=AD:3.40, T:3.33, P:2.88) Not Significant



PROBLEM-SOLVING & DECISION-MAKING STYLE INVENTORY

Perception of self

Developed by Paul Hersey and Walter E. Natemeyer

Your Name: _____

PURPOSE

The purpose of this instrument is to provide feedback on your own perception of your problem-solving and decision-making style(s).

INSTRUCTIONS FOR COMPLETING THE INVENTORY

On the following page are twelve pairs of statements. Decide which of the statements in each pair most reflects the way you approach problems and make decisions. Allocate 3 points between the two alternative statements in each pair. Base your point allocation on your judgment of how well each statement describes how you tend to behave. Assign the most points in the statement in the pair that is more characteristic of your problem-solving or decision-making style.

Allocate the points between the first and second statements in one of the following ways, as shown in the examples below, making sure that the numbers assigned to each pair add up to 3.

<table><tr><td>3^A</td></tr><tr><td>0^B</td></tr></table>	3 ^A	0 ^B	or	<table><tr><td>2^A</td></tr><tr><td>1^B</td></tr></table>	2 ^A	1 ^B	or	<table><tr><td>1^A</td></tr><tr><td>2^B</td></tr></table>	1 ^A	2 ^B	or	<table><tr><td>0^A</td></tr><tr><td>3^B</td></tr></table>	0 ^A	3 ^B
3 ^A														
0 ^B														
2 ^A														
1 ^B														
1 ^A														
2 ^B														
0 ^A														
3 ^B														

When involved in problem-solving or decision-making situations with others, I usually:

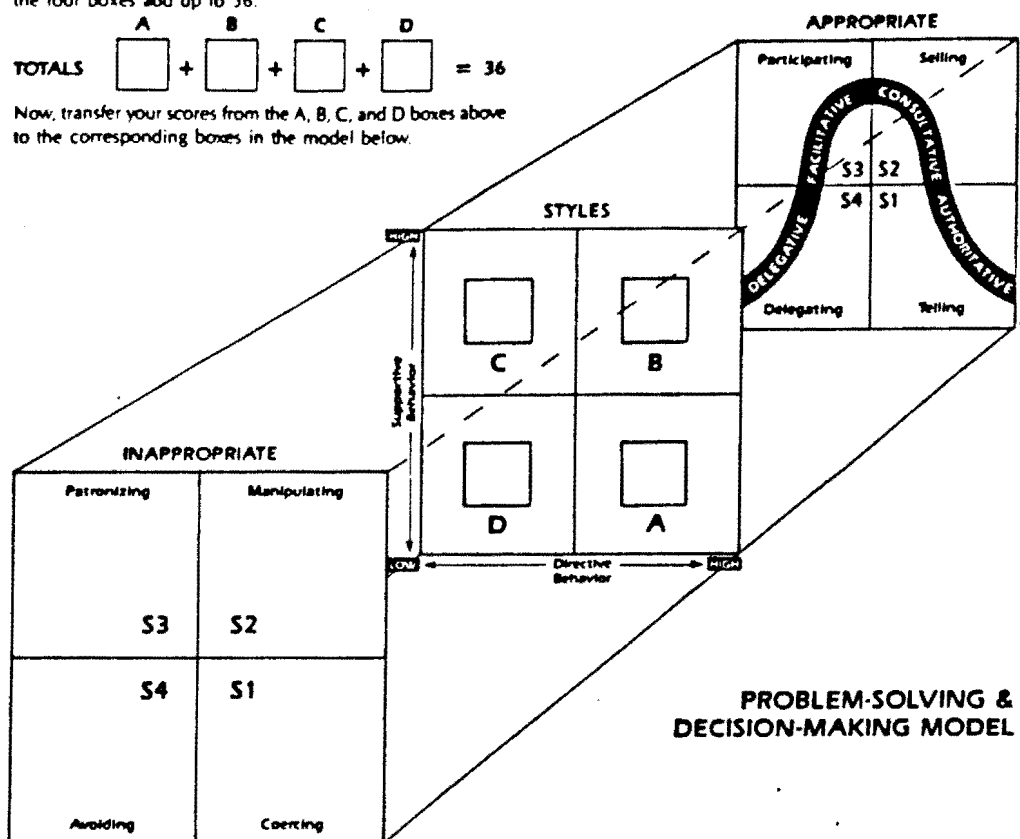
1.	A	Provide specific instructions for resolving the problem.
	B	Ask for input from others to help solve the problem.
2.	C	Share ideas and attempt to reach consensus on a decision.
	D	Provide an opportunity for others to make the decision.
3.	B	Ask for input from others to help solve the problem.
	C	Facilitate discussion and am supportive in problem solving.
4.	A	Make the decision and act firmly and decisively in its implementation.
	D	Provide an opportunity for others to make the decision.
5.	A	Provide specific instructions for resolving the problem.
	C	Facilitate discussion and am supportive in problem solving.
6.	B	Discuss the decision with others and attempt to gain their commitment.
	D	Provide an opportunity for others to make the decision.
7.	A	Make the decision and act firmly and decisively in its implementation.
	C	Share ideas and attempt to reach consensus on a decision.
8.	B	Ask for input from others to help solve the problem.
	D	Let others take the major responsibility for solving the problem.
9.	B	Discuss the decision with others and attempt to gain their commitment.
	C	Share ideas and attempt to reach consensus on a decision.
10.	A	Provide specific instructions for resolving the problem.
	D	Let others take the major responsibility for solving the problem.
11.	A	Make the decision and act firmly and decisively in its implementation.
	B	Discuss the decision with others and attempt to gain their commitment.
12.	C	Facilitate discussion and am supportive in problem solving.
	D	Let others take the major responsibility for solving the problem.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR SCORING

Add the scores that you have assigned to the six A items and record the total in the A box below. Repeat the same procedure for the B, C, and D items, making sure that the numbers in the four boxes add up to 36.

TOTALS $\boxed{}^A + \boxed{}^B + \boxed{}^C + \boxed{}^D = 36$

Now, transfer your scores from the A, B, C, and D boxes above to the corresponding boxes in the model below.



INTERPRETING THE DATA

This inventory provides feedback on your perception of how you behave in a problem-solving or decision-making situation. The extent to which you engage in "directive" and "supportive" behavior is your "style." These two dimensions are defined as follows:

- **Directive behavior** is the extent to which you solve the problems, make the decisions, spell out the duties of others, and engage in telling them what to do, how to do it, when to do it, where to do it, and who is to do it. Some substitute terms for directive behavior include task behavior, assertive behavior, and guidance.
- **Supportive behavior** is the extent to which you engage in two-way communication with others regarding the problem or decision and provide socioemotional support and facilitative behavior. Some substitute terms for supportive behavior include relationship behavior, discussion, and encouragement.

By examining your scores in the A, B, C, and D boxes in the model, you can identify your perception of the relative

emphases you place on the four problem-solving and decision-making styles (telling or authoritative, selling or consultative, participating or facilitative, and delegating or delegative).

The highest score represents your *primary* style, which tends to be the most comfortable for you. The style with the next-highest number is considered your *secondary* style(s). Although you may not be as comfortable with this style as with your primary style, you use this style to a moderate extent. Your style range includes both your primary and secondary styles.

Add the totals of A plus B, B plus C, and C plus D, and enter those totals in the spaces below. The total for A plus B represents your perception of the relative emphases you place on *leader-made* decisions; B plus C represents *collaborative* decision making; and C plus D represents *follower-made* decisions.

A + B = [] Leader-Made Decisions
 B + C = [] Collaborative Decisions
 C + D = [] Follower-Made Decisions

CONCLUSION

There is no "best" style for problem solving or decision making. A person's appropriate style depends on the "readiness" of others involved. If a leader's style matches the readiness level of a follower, it is seen as appropriate.

The following designations from the Problem-Solving & Decision-Making Model are used to identify the four possible appropriate styles:

- S1 = Authoritative (Telling)
- S2 = Consultative (Selling)
- S3 = Facilitative (Participating)
- S4 = Delegative (Delegating)

If there is not a match between the leader's style and the follower's readiness, the style is inappropriate and the following designations from the model may apply:

- S1 = Coercing
- S2 = Manipulating
- S3 = Patronizing
- S4 = Avoiding

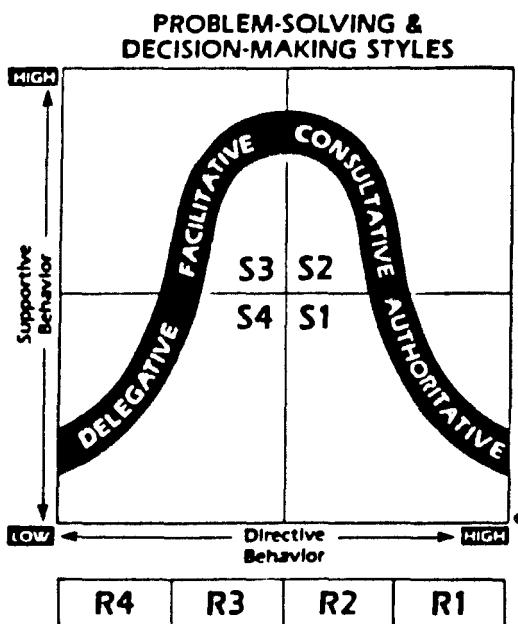
Readiness to solve problems or to make decisions depends on two major factors:

- *Ability*, the extent to which one possesses the necessary knowledge or skill to make the decision or to solve the problem, and
- *Willingness*, the extent to which one possesses the necessary confidence, commitment, and motivation to make the decision or to solve the problem.

To evaluate the scores you gave and to determine the appropriate style for the person you evaluated to use, you must assess the levels of readiness of others involved. The four levels of readiness, corresponding to the four problem-solving and decision-making styles, are defined and shown under the matrix to the right.

PROBLEM-SOLVING & DECISION-MAKING READINESS

- R1 = Unable to make the decision or solve the problem and either unwilling or insecure.
- R2 = Unable to make the decision or solve the problem, but willing or confident.
- R3 = Able to make the decision or solve the problem, but unwilling or insecure.
- R4 = Able to make the decision or solve the problem and willing or confident.



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San Diego, CA 92121, telephone 619-578-5900



PROBLEM-SOLVING & DECISION-MAKING STYLE INVENTORY

Perception of other

Developed by Paul Hersey and Walter E. Natemeyer

Name of Leader: _____

PURPOSE

The purpose of this instrument is to provide feedback on your perception of the problem-solving and decision-making style(s) of an individual with whom you interact.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR COMPLETING THE INVENTORY

On the following page are twelve pairs of statements. Decide which of the statements in each pair most reflects the way the person you are evaluating approaches problems and makes decisions. Allocate 3 points between the two alternative statements in each pair. Base your point allocation on your judgment of how well each statement describes how that person tends to behave. Assign the most points to the statement in the pair that is more characteristic of the individual's problem-solving or decision-making style.

Allocate the points between the first and second statements in one of the following ways, as shown in the examples below, making sure that the numbers assigned to each pair add up to 3.

<table><tr><td>3</td><td>^A</td></tr><tr><td>0</td><td>^B</td></tr></table>	3	^A	0	^B	or	<table><tr><td>2</td><td>^A</td></tr><tr><td>1</td><td>^B</td></tr></table>	2	^A	1	^B	or	<table><tr><td>1</td><td>^A</td></tr><tr><td>2</td><td>^B</td></tr></table>	1	^A	2	^B	or	<table><tr><td>0</td><td>^A</td></tr><tr><td>3</td><td>^B</td></tr></table>	0	^A	3	^B
3	^A																					
0	^B																					
2	^A																					
1	^B																					
1	^A																					
2	^B																					
0	^A																					
3	^B																					

When involved in problem-solving or decision-making situations with others, this person will usually:

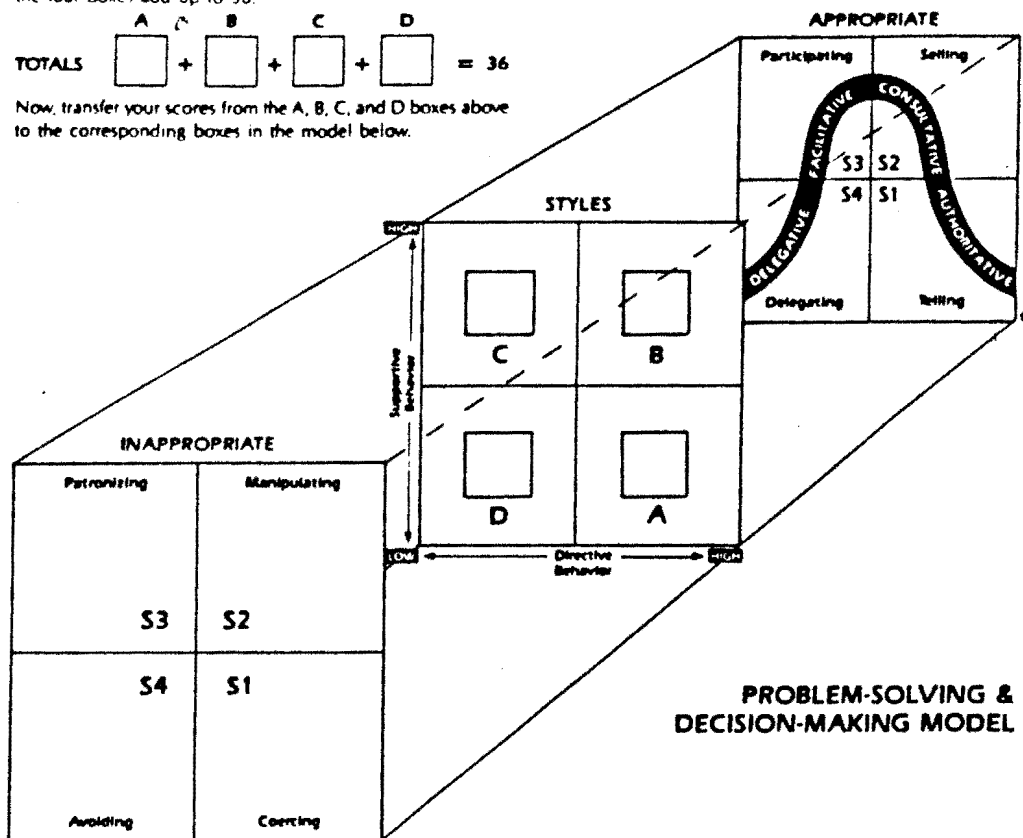
1.	A	Provide specific instructions for resolving the problem.
	B	Ask for input from others to help solve the problem.
2.	C	Share ideas and attempt to reach consensus on a decision.
	D	Provide an opportunity for others to make the decision.
3.	B	Ask for input from others to help solve the problem.
	C	Facilitate discussion and be supportive in problem solving.
4.	A	Make the decision and act firmly and decisively in its implementation.
	D	Provide an opportunity for others to make the decision.
5.	A	Provide specific instructions for resolving the problem.
	C	Facilitate discussion and be supportive in problem solving.
6.	B	Discuss the decision with others and attempt to gain their commitment.
	D	Provide an opportunity for others to make the decision.
7.	A	Make the decision and act firmly and decisively in its implementation.
	C	Share ideas and attempt to reach consensus on a decision.
8.	B	Ask for input from others to help solve the problem.
	D	Let others take the major responsibility for solving the problem.
9.	B	Discuss the decision with others and attempt to gain their commitment.
	C	Share ideas and attempt to reach consensus on a decision.
10.	A	Provide specific instructions for resolving the problem.
	D	Let others take the major responsibility for solving the problem.
11.	A	Make the decision and act firmly and decisively in its implementation.
	B	Discuss the decision with others and attempt to gain their commitment.
12.	C	Facilitate discussion and be supportive in problem solving.
	D	Let others take the major responsibility for solving the problem.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR SCORING

Add the scores that you have assigned to the six A items and record the total in the A box below. Repeat the same procedure for the B, C, and D items, making sure that the numbers in the four boxes add up to 36.

TOTALS $\boxed{}^A + \boxed{}^B + \boxed{}^C + \boxed{}^D = 36$

Now, transfer your scores from the A, B, C, and D boxes above to the corresponding boxes in the model below.



INTERPRETING THE DATA

This inventory provides feedback on your perception of another individual's behavior in a problem-solving or decision-making situation. The extent to which you perceive the individual engaging in "directive" and "supportive" behavior is the person's "style." These two dimensions are defined as follows:

- **Directive behavior** is the extent to which an individual solves the problems, makes the decisions, spells out the duties of others, and engages in telling others what to do, how to do it, when to do it, where to do it, and who is to do it. Some substitute terms for directive behavior include task behavior, assertive behavior, and guidance.
- **Supportive behavior** is the extent to which an individual engages in two-way communication with others regarding the problem or decision and provides socioemotional support and facilitative behavior. Some substitute terms for supportive behavior include relationship behavior, discussion, and encouragement.

By examining your scores in the A, B, C, and D boxes in the model, you can identify your perception of the relative emphases the individual you evaluated places on the four

problem-solving and decision-making styles (telling or authoritative, selling or consultative, participating or facilitative, and delegating or delegative).

The highest score represents the person's *primary style*, which tends to be the most comfortable for the individual evaluated. The style with the next-highest number is considered to be this individual's *secondary style(s)*. Although the person may not be as comfortable with this style as with their primary style, this style is used to a moderate extent. The person's style range includes both primary and secondary styles.

Add the totals of A plus B, B plus C, and C plus D, and enter those totals in the spaces below. The total for A plus B represents this person's perception of the relative emphases placed on *leader-made decisions*; B plus C represents *collaborative decision making*; and C plus D represents *follower-made decisions*.

A + B = [] Leader-Made Decisions
 B + C = [] Collaborative Decisions
 C + D = [] Follower-Made Decisions

CONCLUSION

There is no "best" style for problem solving or decision making. The appropriate style for you depends on the "readiness" of others involved. If your style matches the readiness level of others with whom you are interacting, it is appropriate.

The following designations from the Problem-Solving & Decision-Making Model are used to identify the four possible appropriate styles:

- S1 = Authoritative (Telling)
- S2 = Consultative (Selling)
- S3 = Facilitative (Participating)
- S4 = Delegative (Delegating)

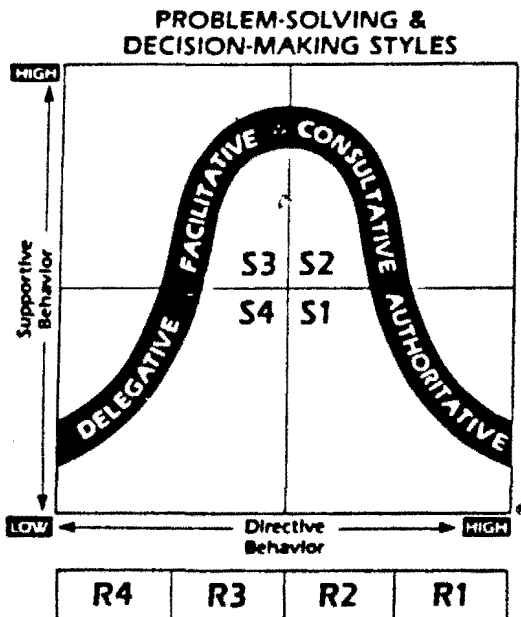
If there is not a match between the leader's style and the follower's readiness, the style is inappropriate and the following designations from the model may apply:

- S1 = Coercing
- S2 = Manipulating
- S3 = Patronizing
- S4 = Avoiding

Readiness to solve problems or to make decisions depends on two major factors:

- **Ability**, the extent to which one possesses the necessary knowledge or skill to make the decision or to solve the problem, and
- **Willingness**, the extent to which one possesses the necessary confidence, commitment, and motivation to make the decision or to solve the problem.

To evaluate your scores and to determine the appropriate style to use, you must assess the levels of readiness of others involved. The four levels of readiness, corresponding to the four problem-solving and decision-making styles, are defined and shown under the matrix to the right.



PROBLEM-SOLVING & DECISION-MAKING READINESS

- R1 = Unable to make the decision or solve the problem and either unwilling or insecure.
- R2 = Unable to make the decision or solve the problem, but willing or confident.
- R3 = Able to make the decision or solve the problem, but unwilling or insecure.
- R4 = Able to make the decision or solve the problem and willing or confident.

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READINESS STYLE MATCH

Perception by Manager

Developed by Paul Hersey, Kenneth H. Blanchard, and Joseph W. Keltly

PURPOSE

The purpose of this instrument is to help you determine your perception of the match between the leadership style you are using with one of your staff members and that person's readiness level.

Your leadership style describes your perception of the behavior you engage in when you are attempting to influence a person's behavior. Readiness refers to the ability and willingness of a person to self-direct behavior while working on a particular objective or responsibility. Ability and willingness are referred to as *job readiness* and *psychological readiness*, respectively.

INSTRUCTIONS

PART 1—Determining perception of leadership style

To determine your perception of the leadership style you are using with one of your staff members, do the following:

1. Write your name, today's date, and the staff member's name in the spaces provided below. Then select one to five of that staff member's major objectives or responsibilities

and write them in the numbered columns above the four descriptors of leadership style. If you intend to share the information from this instrument in a coaching process with this staff member, you should meet with that person prior to using the "Readiness Style Match" and agree on major objectives or responsibilities.

2. For each of the major objectives or responsibilities, read the four descriptors of leader behavior below. From those four, select the style that you feel comes closest to describing your usual behavior with that staff member in relation to that objective. Put a "P" in front of that descriptor. That is your *primary style*. Your primary style would be the style that you use most of the time when this person is working on that objective.

If, in essence, that is the only major style you use, a "P" is all you need to place under that particular objective. If, however, there is another of those four descriptors that you often use in reference to that objective besides the primary style, place an "S" in front of that style. This is your *secondary style*. You can designate only two choices for each objective: one primary style (P) and one secondary style (S).

Your name _____ Date _____ Your staff member's name _____

Major objectives or responsibilities					
1	2	3	4	5	
					1. Provide specific instructions and closely supervise performance.
					2. Explain your decisions and provide opportunity for clarification.
					3. Share ideas and facilitate in making decisions.
					4. Turn over responsibility for decisions and implementation.

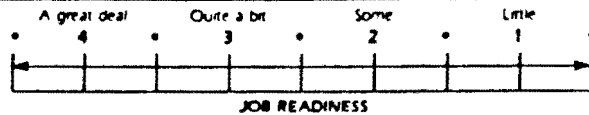
PART II—Determining readiness level

To determine the readiness level of this staff member in terms of each of the aforementioned objectives or responsibilities, do the following:

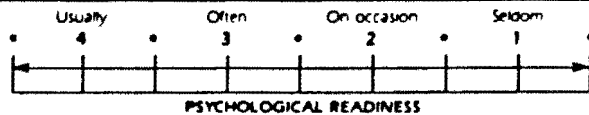
1. Transfer the objectives you wrote in Part I to the corresponding numbered spaces below.
2. Note that two scales, one measuring job readiness (ability) and the other measuring psychological readiness (willingness), appear to the right of where you wrote each objective.
3. Rate each objective independently on the two scales by circling a number or the dot (•) on either side of the number.

1 Objective or responsibility

This person is **ABLE** has the necessary knowledge and skill

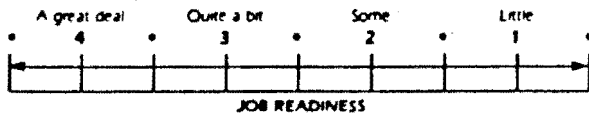


This person is **WILLING** has the necessary confidence and motivation

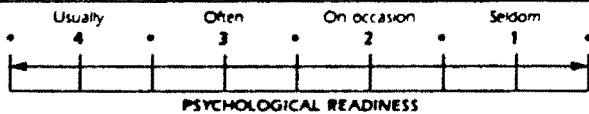


2 Objective or responsibility

This person is **ABLE** has the necessary knowledge and skill

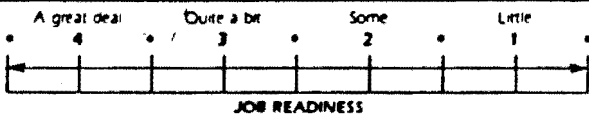


This person is **WILLING** has the necessary confidence and motivation

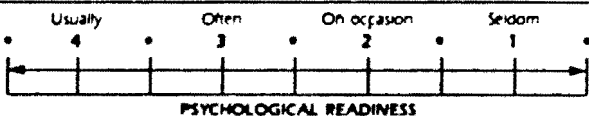


3 Objective or responsibility

This person is **ABLE** has the necessary knowledge and skill

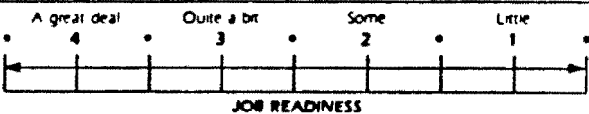


This person is **WILLING** has the necessary confidence and motivation

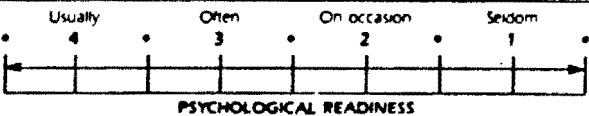


4 Objective or responsibility

This person is **ABLE** has the necessary knowledge and skill

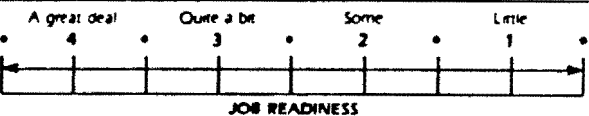


This person is **WILLING** has the necessary confidence and motivation

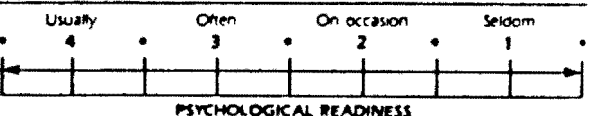


5 Objective or responsibility

This person is **ABLE** has the necessary knowledge and skill



This person is **WILLING** has the necessary confidence and motivation



PART III—Integrating leadership style and readiness levels

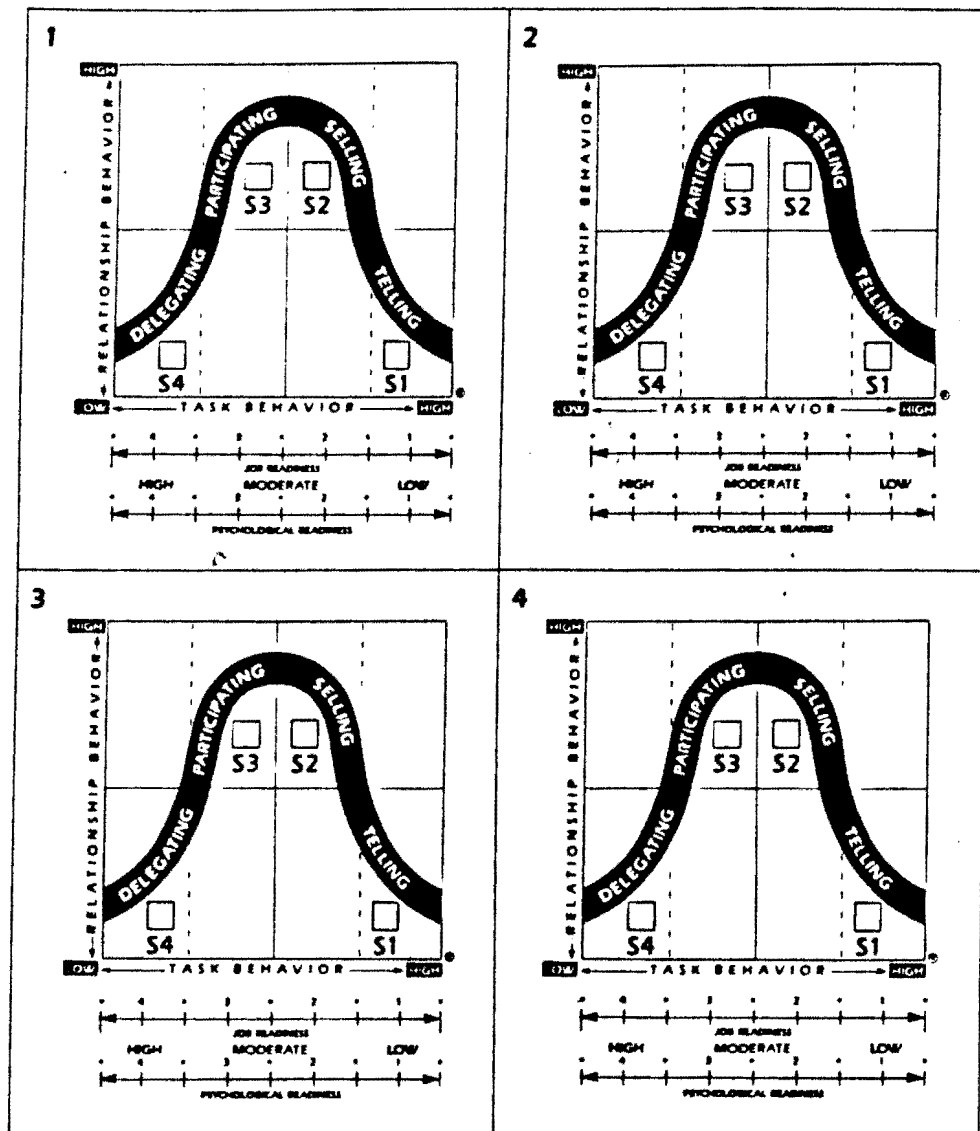
For each objective or responsibility you have been analyzing for this staff member in Part I and Part II, use the numbered Situational Leadership® Model below and on the next page that corresponds to the numbered objective and do the following:

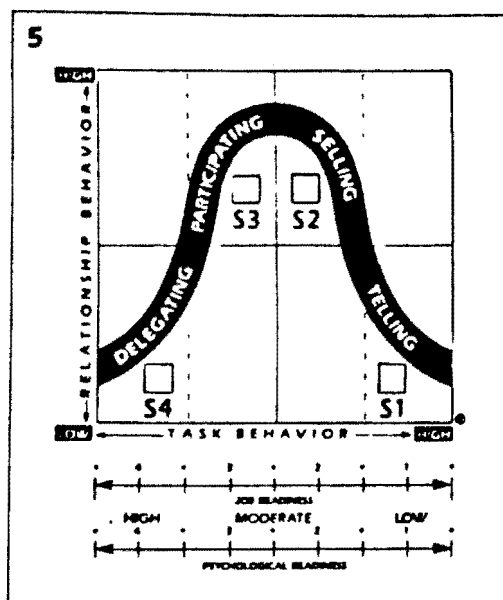
1. Transfer the designations from Part I for primary style (P) and secondary style (S), if selected, and enter them in the appropriate boxes in the Situational Leadership® Models. The descriptor of leader behavior numbers correspond to the style numbers on the model as follows:

Descriptor #1 = S1—Telling
 Descriptor #2 = S2—Selling
 Descriptor #3 = S3—Participating
 Descriptor #4 = S4—Delegating

2. Now transfer the readiness levels you determined in Part II for this staff member by circling them below the appropriately numbered Situational Leadership® Models.

3. Draw a line connecting your job readiness and psychological readiness ratings in each of the Situational Leadership® Models to show the range of readiness for this person on each major objective.





PART IV—Using the Readiness Style Match Matrix

In order to determine, based on your ratings, the most appropriate leadership style that you should use for this staff member on each major objective, use the Readiness Style Match Matrix as follows:

1. For Objective 1, locate on the matrix the job readiness (ability) rating on the horizontal axis and the psychological readiness (willingness) rating on the vertical axis.
2. Draw an imaginary line into the matrix from the job readiness and psychological readiness ratings. The box where those two lines meet indicates the appropriate style or styles you should be using with that person in terms of that specific objective. In the matrix, T = Telling, S = Selling, P = Participating, and D = Delegating.

3. Put a check mark or marks in the style quadrant or quadrants in Situational Leadership® Model 1 in Part III which is identified by the matrix as the appropriate style(s) you should be using for Objective 1.

4. Repeat this procedure for the remaining objectives.

- Compare the check mark(s) generated from the matrix with the primary and secondary style designations that you determined in Part I for each objective. This comparison gives you some insight into whether you are using "over leadership," "under leadership," or a "high-probability style match."
- "Over leadership" occurs when this person has high levels of readiness but you are using telling and selling styles to a greater degree than necessary. "Under leadership" occurs when this person has low levels of readiness but you are engaging in participating and delegating styles more than is appropriate. A "high-probability style match" occurs when the style(s) you are using tends to correspond with the readiness levels designated.

READINESS STYLE MATCH MATRIX

PSYCHOLOGICAL READINESS (WILLINGNESS)	•	4	•	3	•	2	•	1	•
	D	D	D	PD	P	P	SP	S	S
	D	D	D	PD	P	SP	S	S	S
	D	D	PD	P	P	SP	S	S	S
	PD	PD	P	P	P	SP	S	S	TS
	P	P	P	P	SP	S	S	TS	TS
	P	SP	SP	SP	S	S	S	TS	T
	SP	SP	S	S	S	S	TS	T	T
	S	S	S	TS	TS	TS	T	T	T
	S	S	TS	TS	T	T	T	T	T
• 4 • 3 • 2 • 1 •									
JOB READINESS (ABILITY)									

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READINESS STYLE MATCH

Perception by Staff Member

Developed by Paul Hersey, Kenneth H. Blanchard, and Joseph W. Keilty

PURPOSE

The purpose of this instrument is to help you determine your perception of the match between the leadership style your manager is using with you and your readiness level.

The leadership style of your manager describes your perception of the behavior that manager engages in when attempting to influence your behavior. Readiness refers to your ability and willingness to self-direct your behavior while working on a particular objective or responsibility. Ability and willingness are referred to as *job readiness* and *psychological readiness*, respectively.

INSTRUCTIONS

PART 1—Determining perception of leadership style

To determine your perception of the leadership style your manager is using with you, do the following:

1. Write your name, today's date, and your manager's name in the spaces provided below. Then select one to five of your major objectives or responsibilities and write them in the numbered columns above the four descriptors of leadership

style. If you intend to share the information from this instrument in a coaching process with your manager, you should meet with your manager prior to using the "Readiness Style Match" and agree on what your major objectives or responsibilities are.

2. For each of the major objectives or responsibilities, read the four descriptors of leader behavior below. From those four, select the style that you feel comes closest to describing your manager's usual behavior with you in relation to that objective. Put a "P" in front of that descriptor. That is your manager's *primary style*. Your manager's primary style would be the style that person tends to use most of the time with you when you are working on that objective.

If, in essence, that is the only major style your manager uses, a "P" is all you need to place under that particular objective. If, however, there is another of those four descriptors that your manager often uses in reference to that objective besides the primary style, place an "S" in front of that style. This is your manager's *secondary style*. You can designate only two choices for each objective: one primary style (P) and one secondary style (S).

Your name _____ Date _____ Your manager's name _____

Major objectives or responsibilities

					Major objectives or responsibilities
1	2	3	4	5	
					1. Provides specific instructions and closely supervises performance.
					2. Explains decisions and provides opportunity for clarification.
					3. Shares ideas and facilitates in making decisions.
					4. Turns over responsibility for decisions and implementation.

PART II—Determining readiness level

To determine your readiness level in terms of each of the aforementioned objectives or responsibilities, do the following:

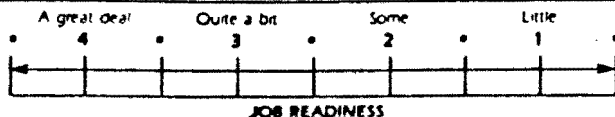
1. Transfer the objectives you wrote in Part I to the corresponding numbered spaces below.
2. Note that two scales, one measuring job readiness (*ability*)

and the other measuring psychological readiness (*willingness*), appear to the right of where you wrote each objective.

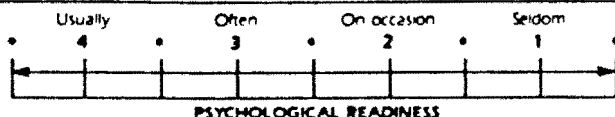
3. Rate each objective independently on the two scales by circling a number or the dot (•) on either side of the number.

1 Objective or responsibility

I am **ABLE** have the necessary knowledge and skill

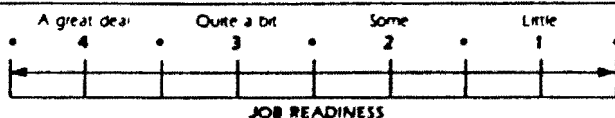


I am **WILLING** have the necessary confidence and motivation

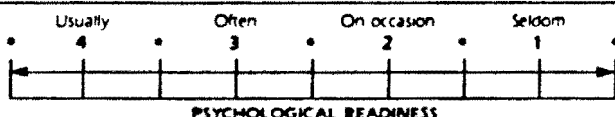


2 Objective or responsibility

I am **ABLE** have the necessary knowledge and skill

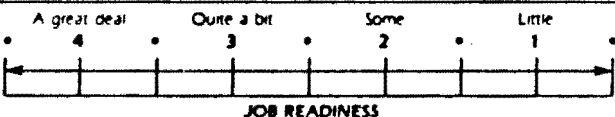


I am **WILLING** have the necessary confidence and motivation

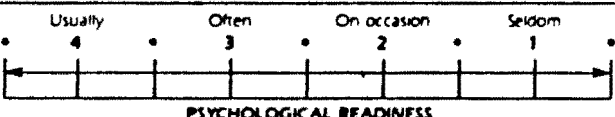


3 Objective or responsibility

I am **ABLE** have the necessary knowledge and skill

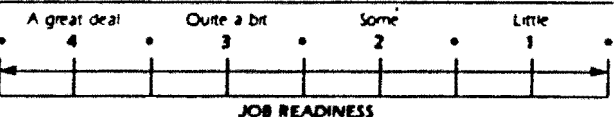


I am **WILLING** have the necessary confidence and motivation

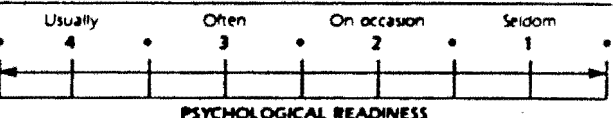


4 Objective or responsibility

I am **ABLE** have the necessary knowledge and skill

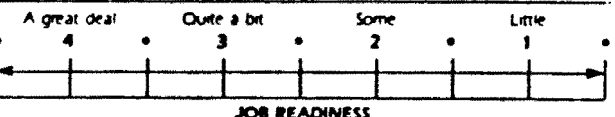


I am **WILLING** have the necessary confidence and motivation

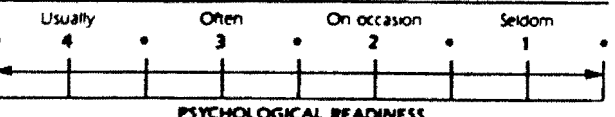


5 Objective or responsibility

I am **ABLE** have the necessary knowledge and skill



I am **WILLING** have the necessary confidence and motivation



PART III—Integrating leadership style and readiness levels

For each objective or responsibility you have been analyzing in Part I and Part II, use the numbered Situational Leadership® Model below that corresponds to the numbered objective and do the following:

1. Transfer the designations from Part I for primary style (P) and secondary style (S), if selected, and enter them in the appropriate boxes in the Situational Leadership® Models. The descriptor of leader behavior numbers correspond to the style numbers on the model as follows:

Descriptor #1 = S1—Telling

Descriptor #2 = S2—Selling

Descriptor #3 = S3—Participating

Descriptor #4 = S4—Delegating

2. Now transfer the readiness levels you determined in Part II by circling them below the appropriately numbered Situational Leadership® Models.
3. Draw a line connecting your job readiness and psychological readiness ratings in each of the Situational Leadership® Models to show your range of readiness on each major objective.

1

2

3

4

3. Put a check mark or marks in the style quadrant or quadrants in Situational Leadership® Model 1 in Part III which is identified by the matrix as the appropriate style(s) your manager should be using for Objective 1.
4. Repeat this procedure for the remaining objectives.
 - Compare the check mark(s) generated from the matrix with the primary and secondary style designations that you determined in Part I for each objective. This comparison gives you some insight into whether your manager is using "over leadership," "under leadership," or a "high-probability style match."
 - "Over leadership" occurs when you have high levels of readiness but your manager is using *telling* and *selling* styles to a greater degree than necessary. "Under leadership" occurs when you have low levels of readiness but your manager is engaging in *participating* and *delegating* styles more than is appropriate. A "high-probability style match" occurs when the style(s) of your manager tends to correspond with the readiness levels designated.

PART IV—Using the Readiness Style Match Matrix

In order to determine, based on your ratings, the most appropriate leadership style that your manager should use with you on each major objective, use the Readiness Style Match Matrix as follows:

1. For Objective 1, locate on the matrix the job readiness (ability) rating on the horizontal axis and the psychological readiness (willingness) rating on the vertical axis.
2. Draw an imaginary line into the matrix from the job readiness and psychological readiness ratings. The box where those two lines would meet indicates the appropriate style or styles your manager should be using with you in terms of that specific objective. In the matrix, T = Telling, S = Selling, P = Participating, and D = Delegating.

READINESS STYLE MATCH MATRIX

•	D	D	D	PD	P	P	SP	S	S
•	D	D	D	PD	P	SP	S	S	S
•	D	D	PD	P	P	SP	S	S	S
•	PD	PD	P	P	P	SP	S	S	TS
•	P	P	P	P	SP	S	S	TS	TS
•	P	SP	SP	SP	S	S	S	TS	T
•	SP	SP	S	S	S	S	TS	T	T
•	S	S	S	TS	TS	TS	T	T	T
•	S	S	TS	TS	T	T	T	T	T

• 4 • 3 • 2 • 1 •

JOB READINESS (ABILITY)

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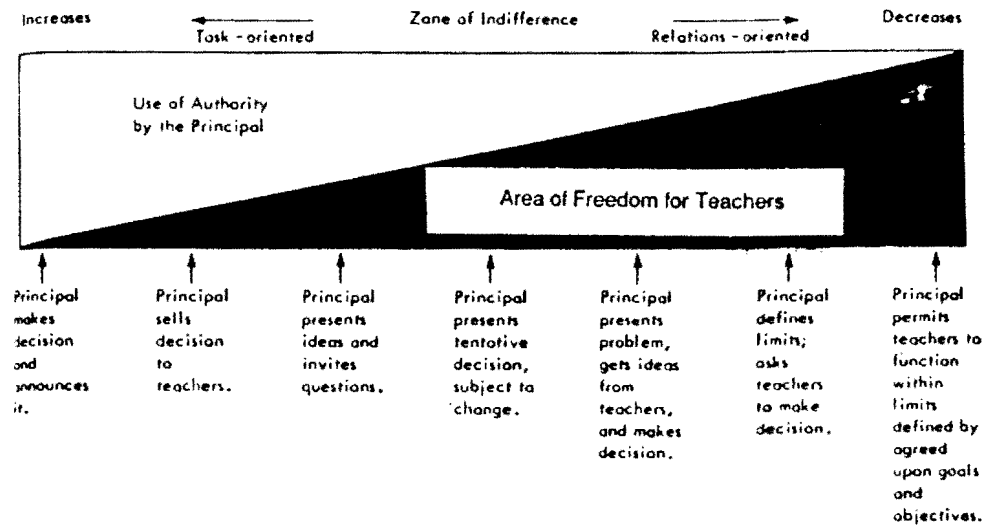


Structured Interview Questions

1. What is your basis for selecting participants for decision-making?
 - a. On what basis should persons be selected for participating in decision-making?
2. In matching participants in decision-making to issues, what issues should parents address, teachers, etc.?
3. Do you feel that training for participating in decision-making is necessary?
 - a. What form should that training take?
4. What factors are most important in determining the success of shared decision-making?
5. When a shared decision that is reached is contrary to your viewpoint, what is your reaction? What steps would you take to modify such a decision?
6. What influences you the most in reaching a decision?
 - a. The number of people supporting the idea?
 - b. The level of expertise of the persons supporting the idea?
 - c. The idea itself as you see it?

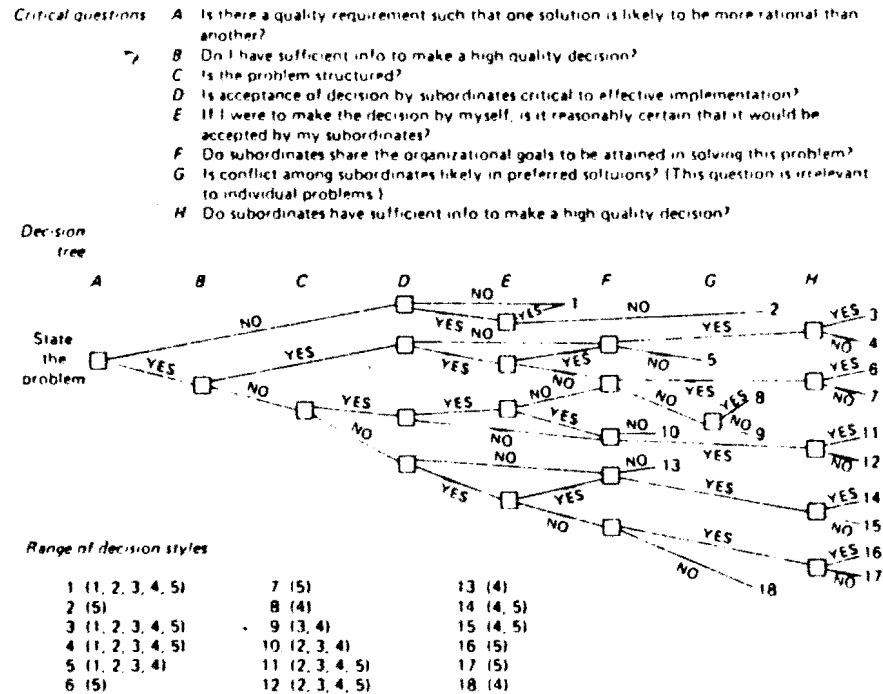
ILLUSTRATIONS

Figure 1. Tannenbaum and Schmidt : The Zone of Indifference¹



¹Thomas J. Sergiovanni and David L. Elliot, Educational and Organizational Leadership in Elementary Schools (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 1975.) p. 109.

Figure 2. Vroom and Jago: Decision Theory²



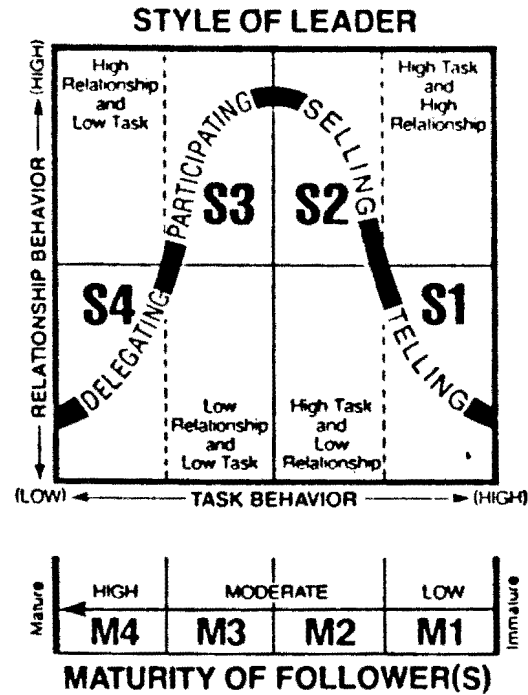
²Thomas J. Sergiovanni and Thomas J. Starratt, Supervision: Human Perspectives (New York, New York: McGraw Hill, 1983). p.96.

Figure 3. Fiedler: The Contingency Leadership Model.³

	Favorable			Intermediate		Unfavorable		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Leader-member relations		Good			Moderate			Poor
Task structure	Structured		Unstructured		Structured		Unstructured	
Leader position power	S	W	S	W	S	W	S	W
Effective style		T	T		R	R	R	T

³Thomas J. Sergiovanni and David L. Elliot, Educational and Organizational Leadership in Elementary Schools (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 1975.) p. 108.

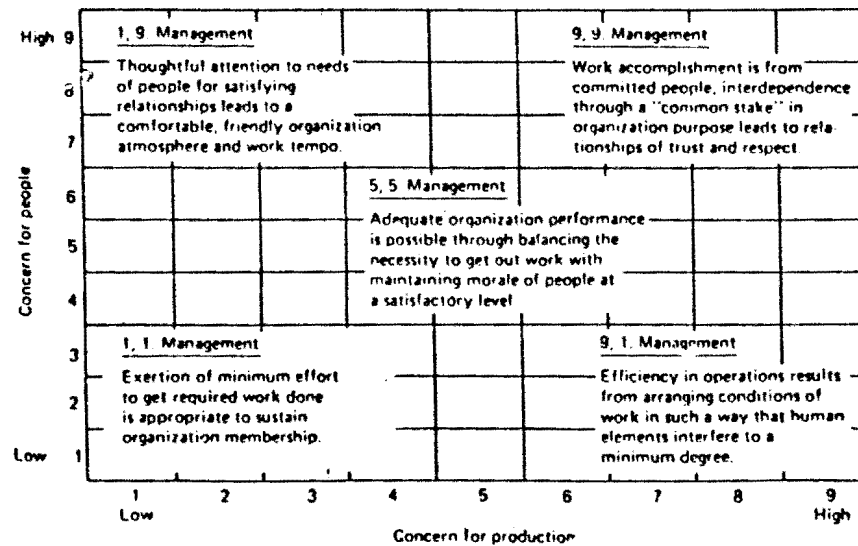
Figure 4. Hersey and Blanchard: Situational Leadership Model⁴



⁴Paul Hersey and Ken Blanchard, Management of Organizational Behavior: Utilizing Human Resources (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 1982.). p. 152.

Figure 5. Blake and Mouton: Managerial Grid⁵

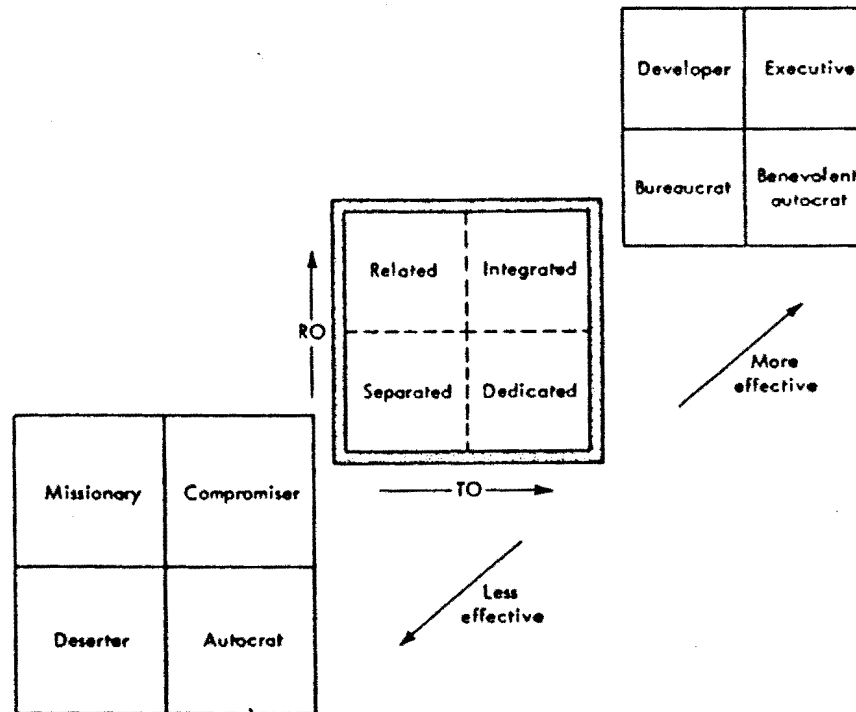
⁵Robert Blake and Jane Mouton, *The Managerial Grid*, Houston: Gulf, 1964.



The managerial grid. (From Robert Blake and Jane Mouton, *The Managerial Grid*.)

⁵Thomas J. Sergiovanni and Thomas J. Starratt, *Supervision: Human Perspectives* (New York, New York: McGraw Hill, 1983). p.83.

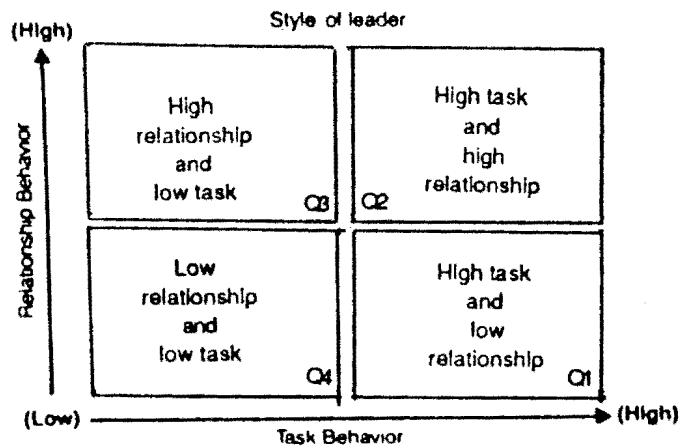
Figure 6. Reddin: 3-D Leadership Model⁶



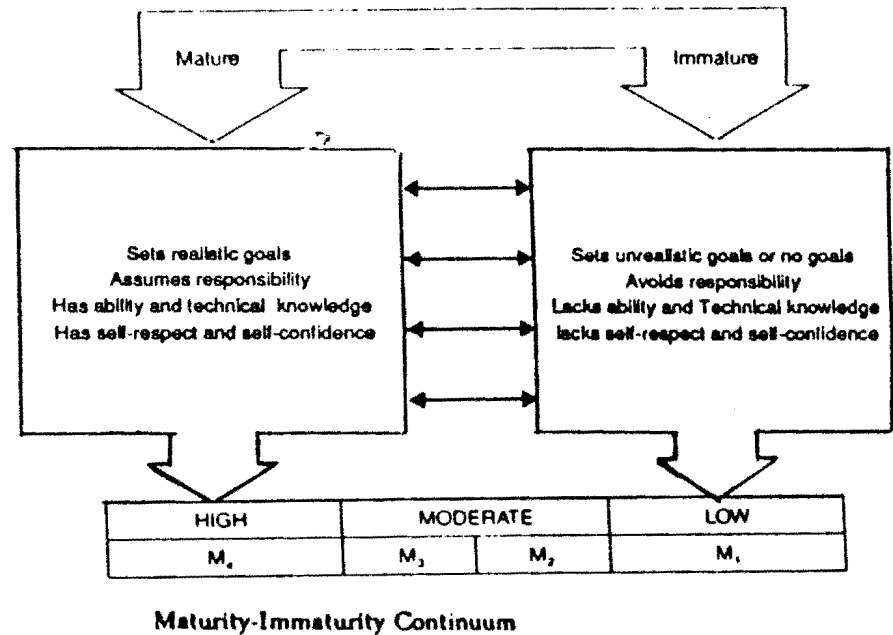
Reddin's 3-D Theory of Leadership.

⁶Thomas J. Sergiovanni and David L. Elliot, Educational and Organizational Leadership in Elementary Schools (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 1975.) p. 105.

Figure 7. Hersey and Blanchard: TO/RO Model⁷



Hersey and Blanchard's Leadership Styles



⁷Wayne K. Hoy and Patrick B. Forsyth, Effective Supervision: Theory into Practice. (New York, New York: Random House, 1986.) pp. 136-137.

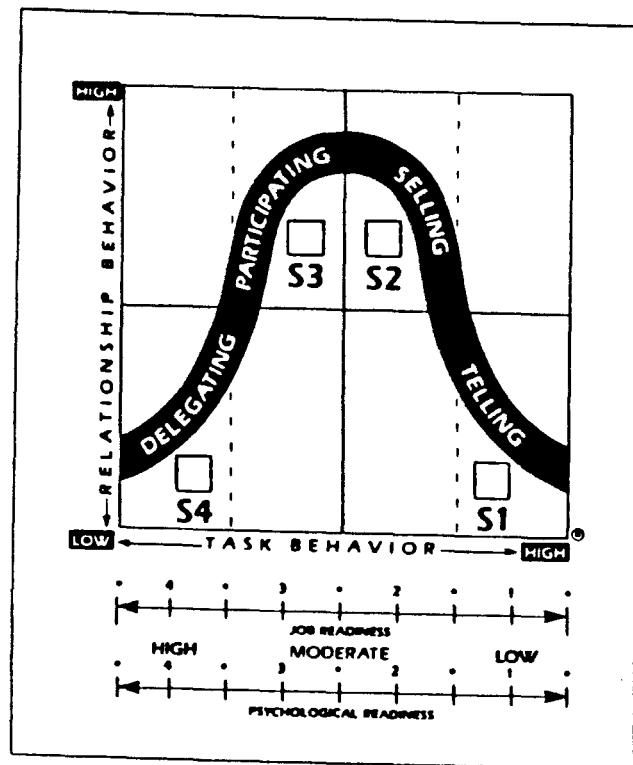
Figure 8. Hersey and Blanchard: TO/RO Model and the M1-M4 Concept⁸³

→ Matching maturity level with the leadership style most likely to work well

Maturity	"Best" Style	Second "Best" Style	Third "Best" Style	Least Effective Style
M1 Low	S1 Telling	S2 Selling	S3 Participating	S4 Delegating
M2 Low to Moderate	S2 Selling	S1 Telling or S3 Participating		S4 Delegating
M3 Moderate to High	S3 Participating	S2 Selling or S4 Delegating		S1 Telling
M4 High	S4 Delegating	S3 Participating	S2 Selling	S1 Telling

⁸³Paul Hersey and Ken Blanchard, Management of Organizational Behavior: Utilizing Human Resources (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 1982.). p. 236.

Figure 9. Hersey and Blanchard: Leadership Match Theory⁹

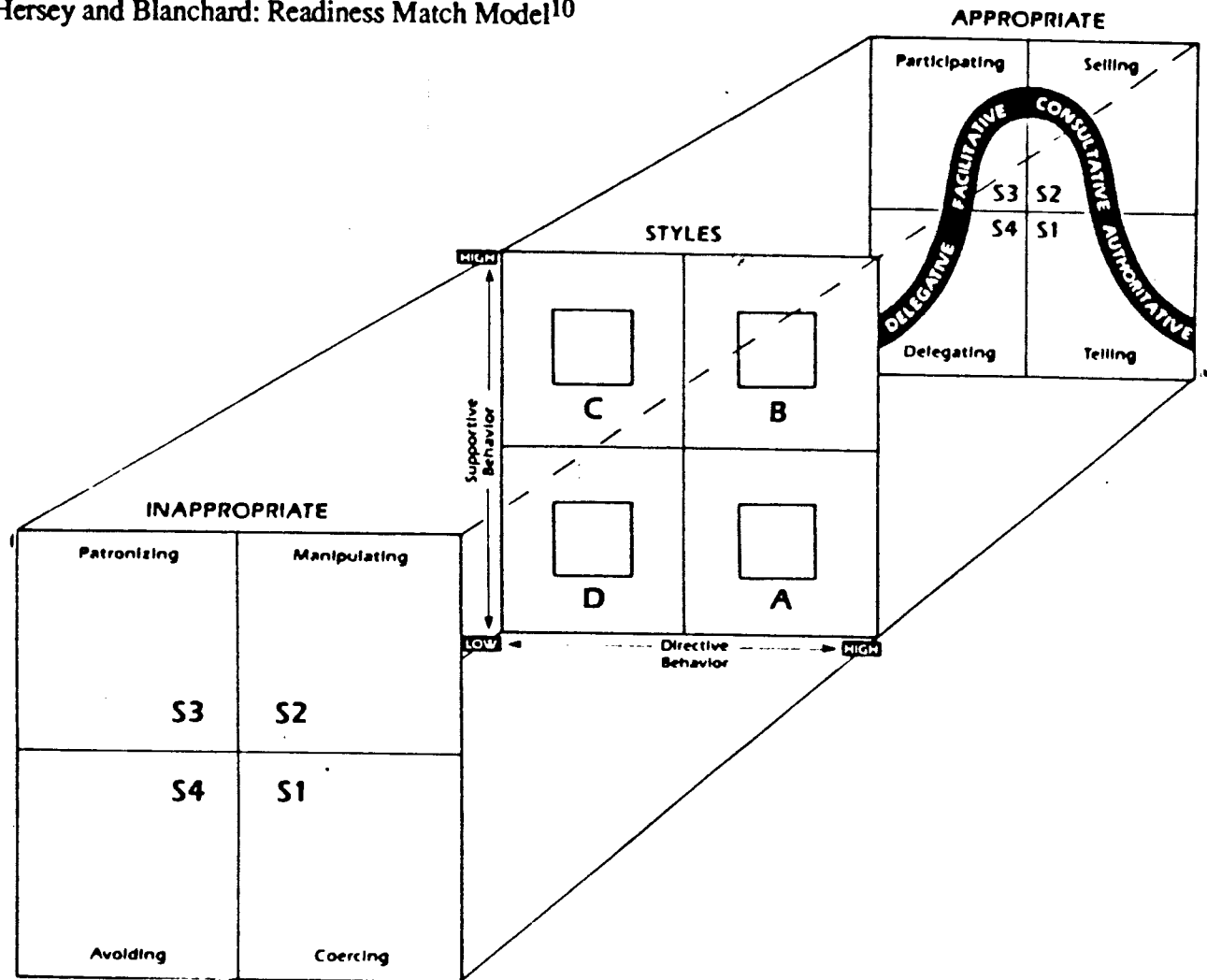


READINESS STYLE MATCH MATRIX

•	D	D	D	PD	P	P	SP	S	S
4	D	D	D	PD	P	SP	S	S	S
•	D	D	PD	P	P	SP	S	S	S
3	PD	PD	P	P	P	SP	S	S	TS
•	P	P	P	P	SP	S	S	TS	TS
2	P	SP	SP	SP	S	S	S	TS	T
•	SP	SP	S	S	S	S	TS	T	T
1	S	S	S	TS	TS	TS	T	T	T
•	S	S	TS	TS	T	T	T	T	T
	•	4	•	3	•	2	•	1	•
	JOB READINESS (ABILITY)								

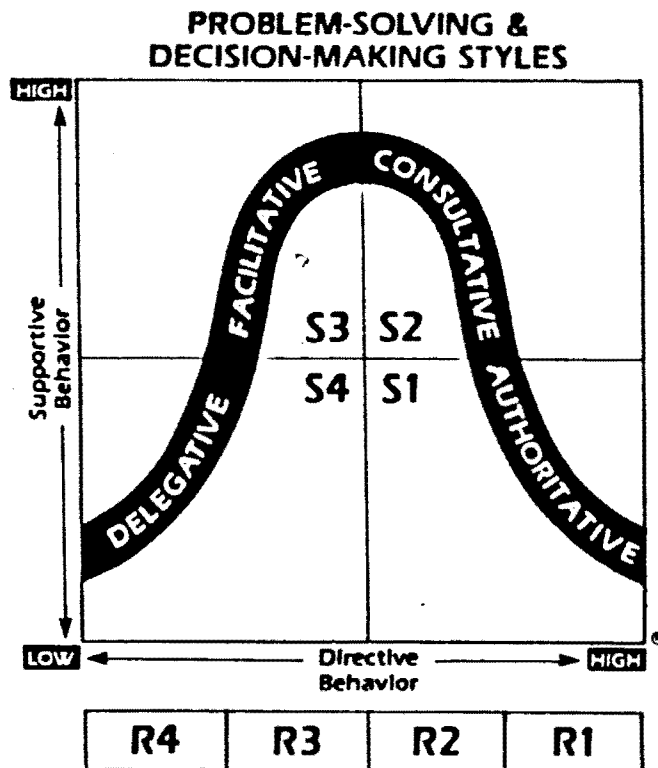
⁹Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard and Joseph W. Kielty, "Readiness Style Match: Perception by Staff Member," (San Diego, California: Leadership Studies, Inc., 1989.). p. 4.

Figure 10. Hersey and Blanchard: Readiness Match Model¹⁰



¹⁰Paul Hersey and Walter E. Natemaeyer, "Problem-Solving and Decision-Making Style Inventory: Perception of Other," (San Diego, California: Leadership Studies, Inc., 1988.). p.3.

Figure 11. Hersey and Blanchard: Decision and Problem Solving Model¹¹



PROBLEM-SOLVING & DECISION-MAKING READINESS

- R1 – Unable to make the decision or solve the problem and either unwilling or insecure.
- R2 – Unable to make the decision or solve the problem, but willing or confident.
- R3 – Able to make the decision or solve the problem, but unwilling or insecure.
- R4 – Able to make the decision or solve the problem and willing or confident.

The following designations from the Problem-Solving & Decision-Making Model are used to identify the four possible appropriate styles:

- S1 – Authoritative (Telling)
- S2 – Consultative (Selling)
- S3 – Facilitative (Participating)
- S4 – Delegative (Delegating)

If there is not a match between the leader's style and the follower's readiness, the style is *inappropriate* and the following designations from the model may apply:

- S1 – Coercing
- S2 – Manipulating
- S3 – Patronizing
- S4 – Avoiding

Readiness to solve problems or to make decisions depends on two major factors:

- *Ability*, the extent to which one possesses the necessary knowledge or skill to make the decision or to solve the problem, and
- *Willingness*, the extent to which one possesses the necessary confidence, commitment, and motivation to make the decision or to solve the problem.

¹¹Paul Hersey and Walter E. Natemaeyer, "Problem-Solving and Decision-Making Style Inventory: Perception of Other," (San Diego, California: Leadership Studies, Inc., 1989.). p.4.

Figure 12. Planning Areas and the Desire for Greater Shared Decision-making.

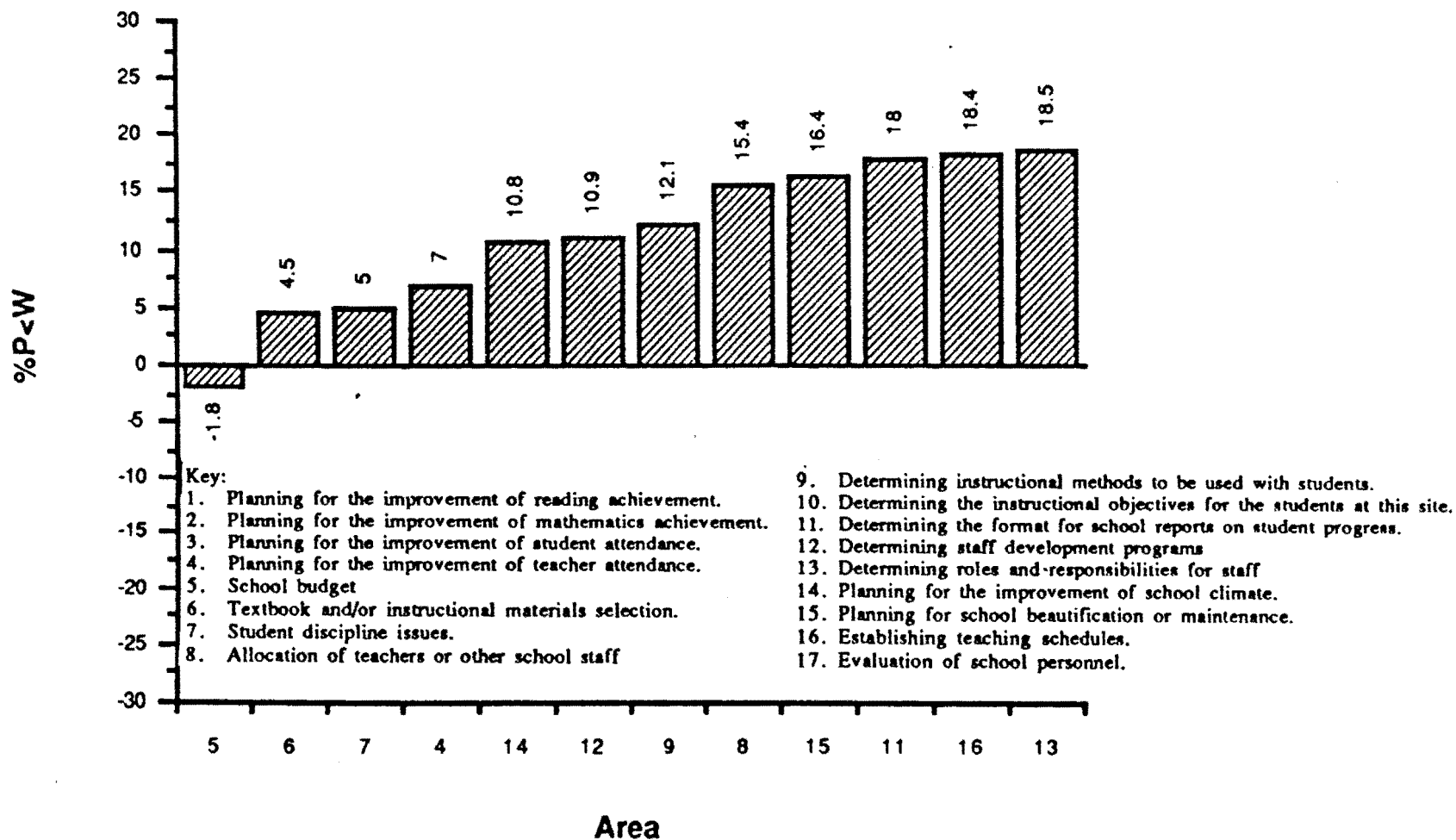


Figure 13. Percent of Respondents Indicating They Make the Decision Alone by Area.

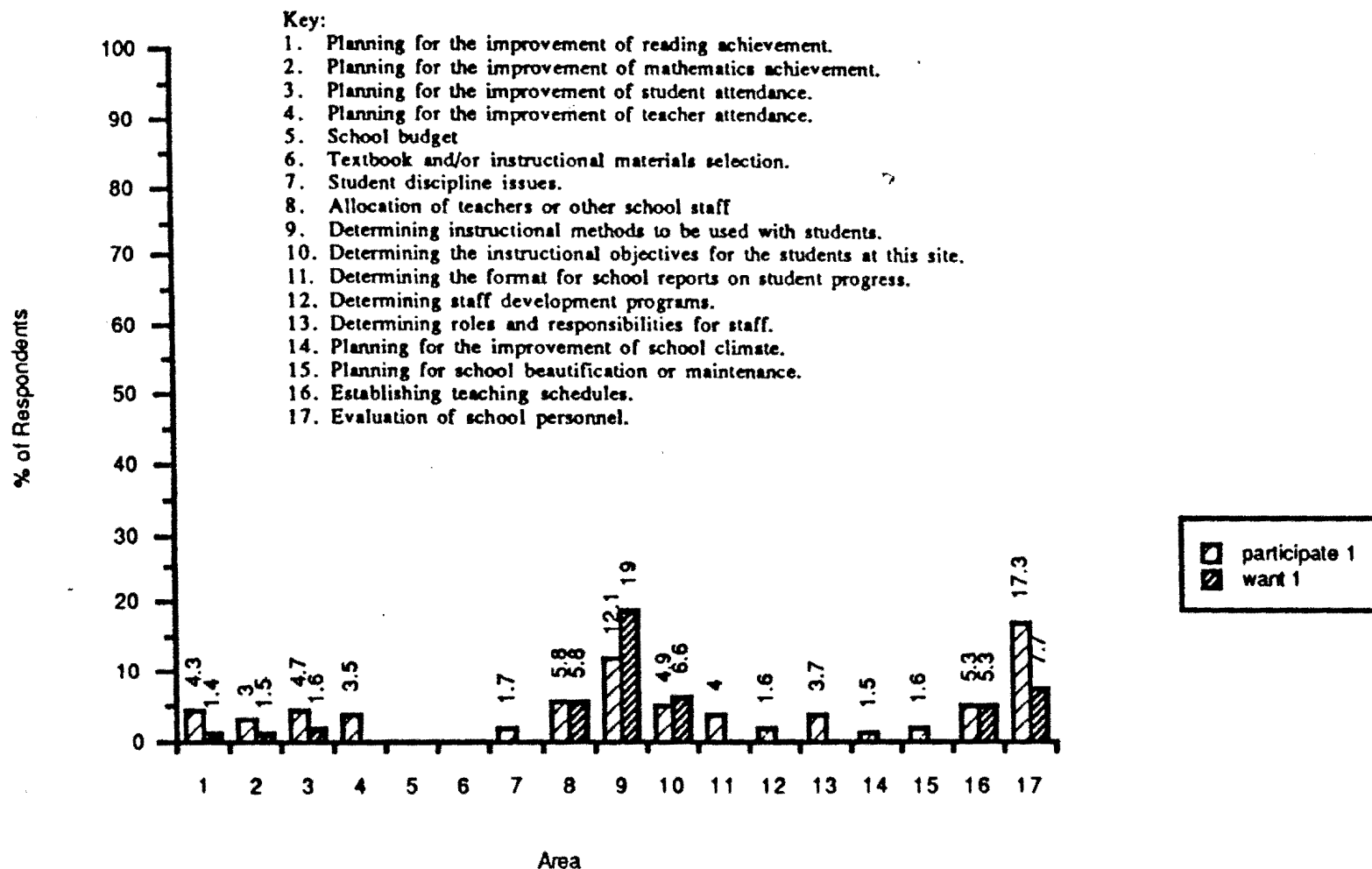


Figure 14. Percent of Respondents Indicating They Recommend Decisions by Area.

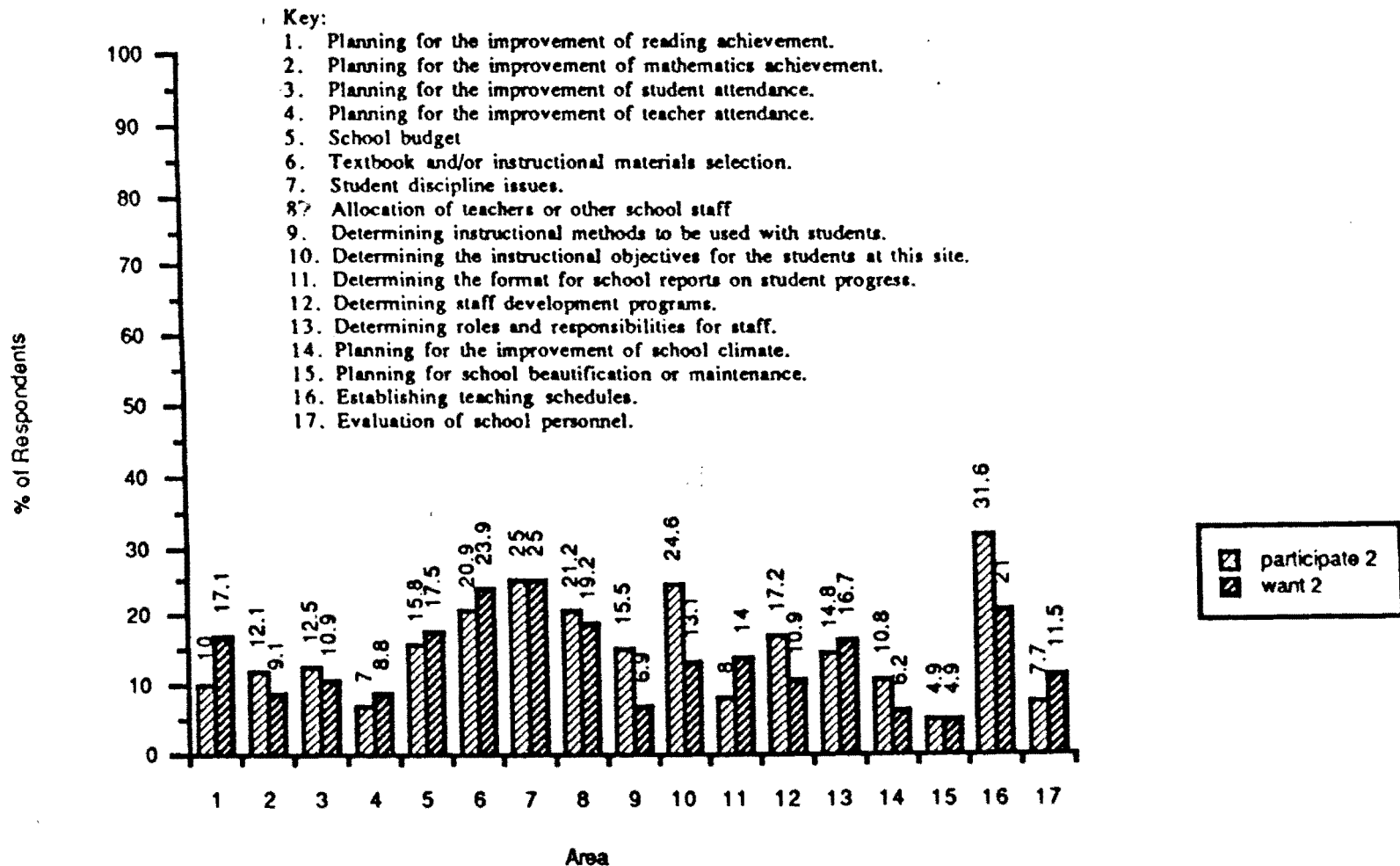


Figure 15. Percent of Respondents Who Suggest Possible Alternatives by Area.

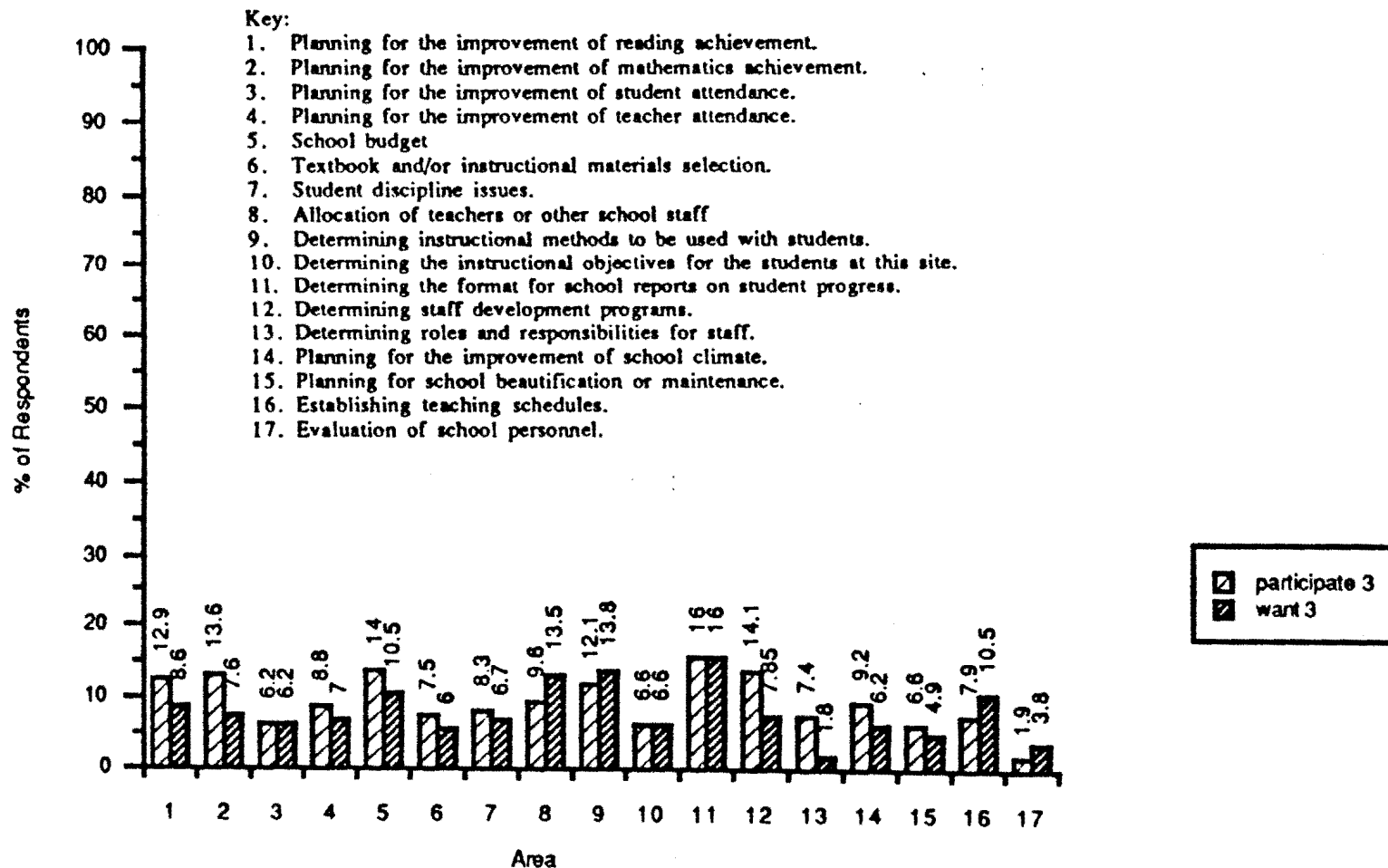


Figure 16. Percent of Respondents Who Gather or Provide Information by Area

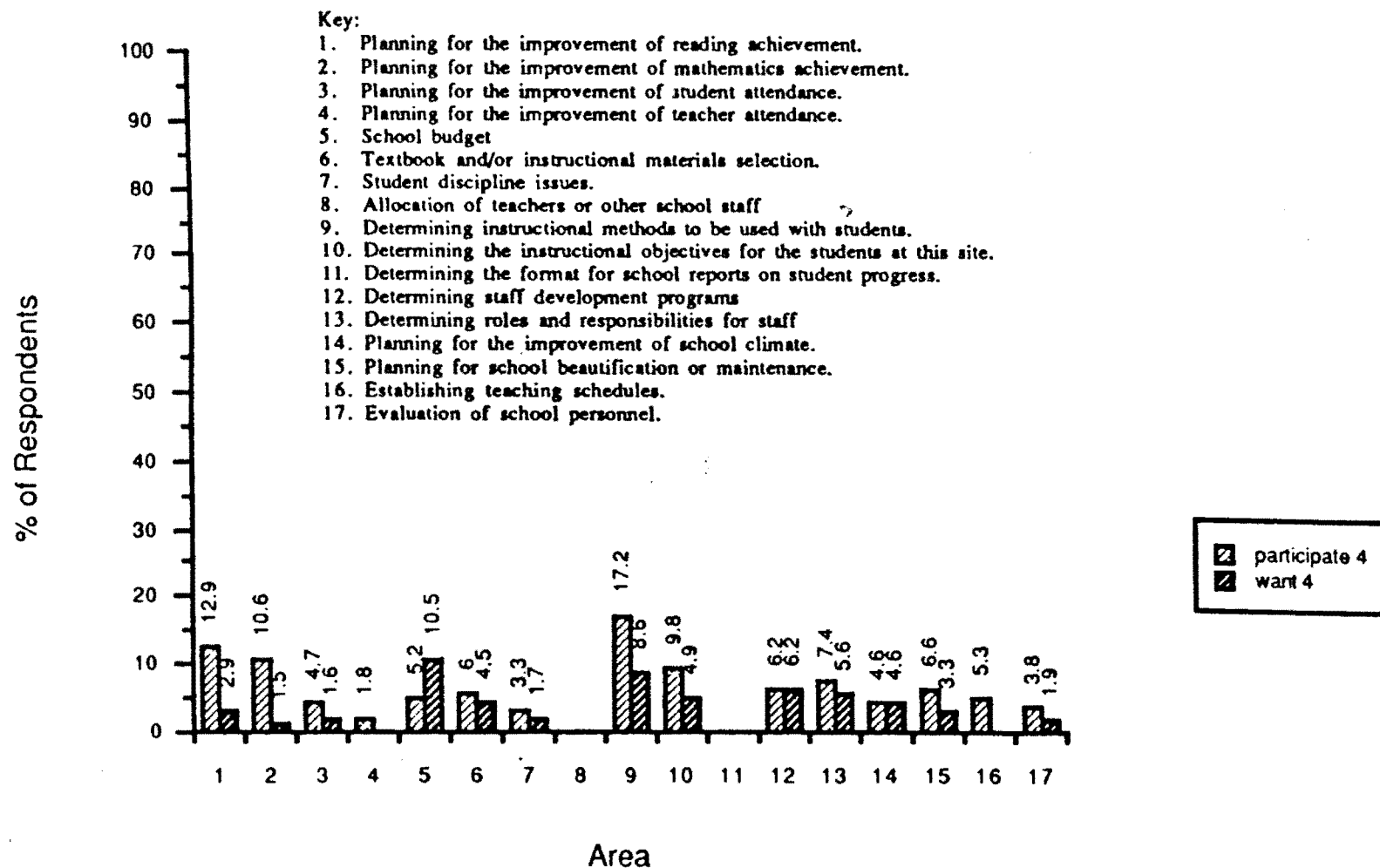
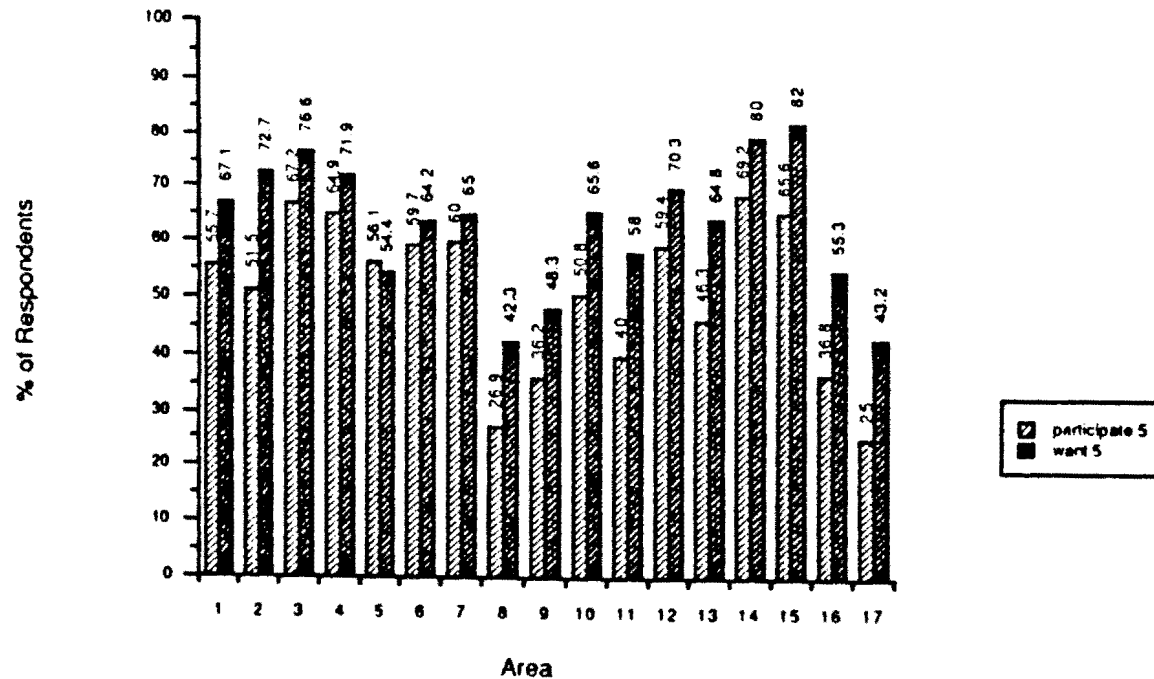


Figure 17. Percent of Respondents Who Make the Decision as a Part of the Group by Area.



Key:

1. Planning for the improvement of reading achievement.
2. Planning for the improvement of mathematics achievement.
3. Planning for the improvement of student attendance.
4. Planning for the improvement of teacher attendance.
5. School budget
6. Textbook and/or instructional materials selection.
7. Student discipline issues.
8. Allocation of teachers or other school staff
9. Determining instructional methods to be used with students.
10. Determining the instructional objectives for the students at this site.
11. Determining the format for school reports on student progress.
12. Determining staff development programs/
13. Determining roles and responsibilities for staff
14. Planning for the improvement of school climate.
15. Planning for school beautification or maintenance.
16. Establishing teaching schedules.
17. Evaluation of school personnel.

Figure 18. Percent of Respondents Who Do Not Participate by Area.

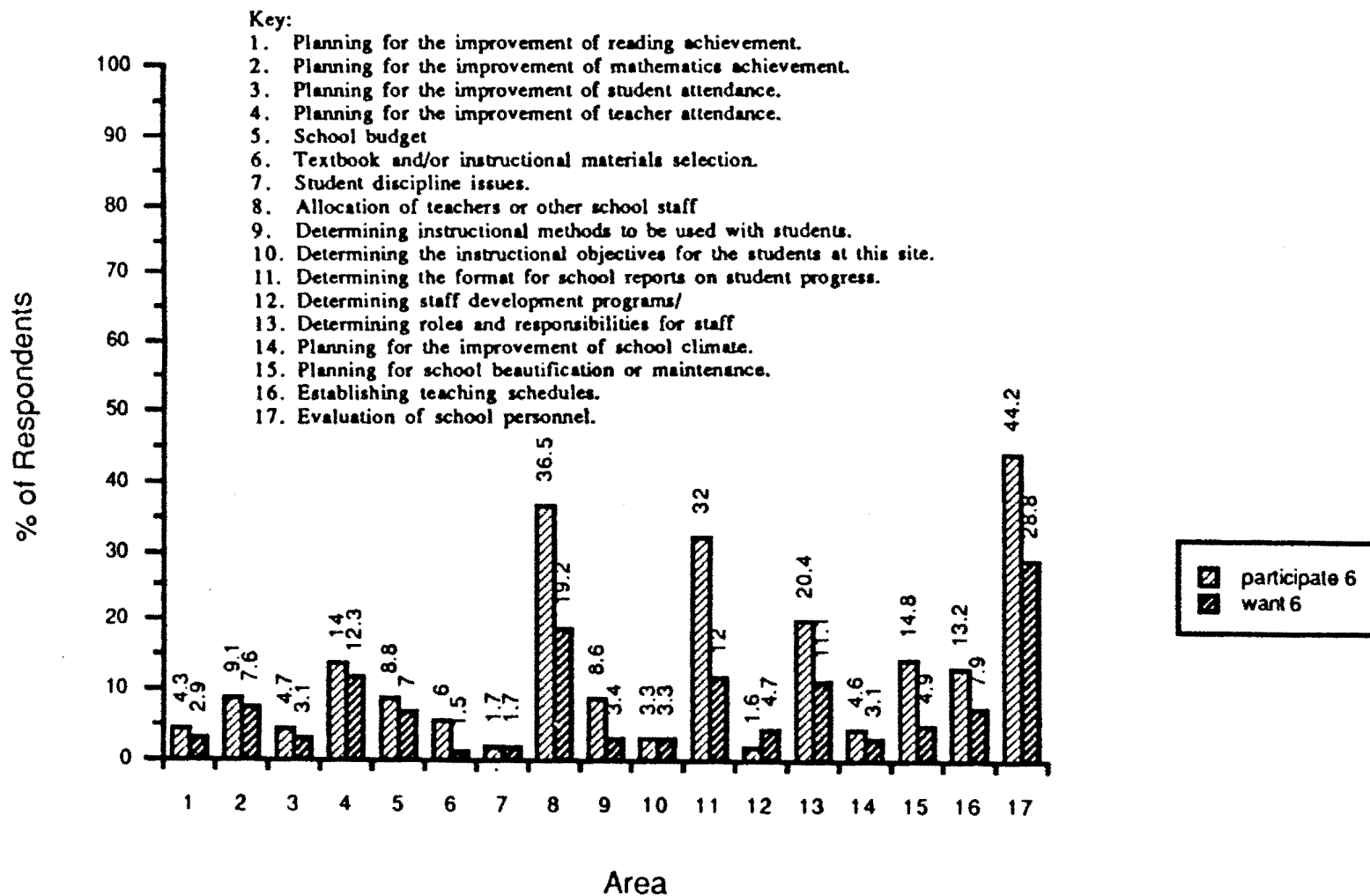


Figure 19. Percent of Discrepancy on Planning Areas with Significant Differences.

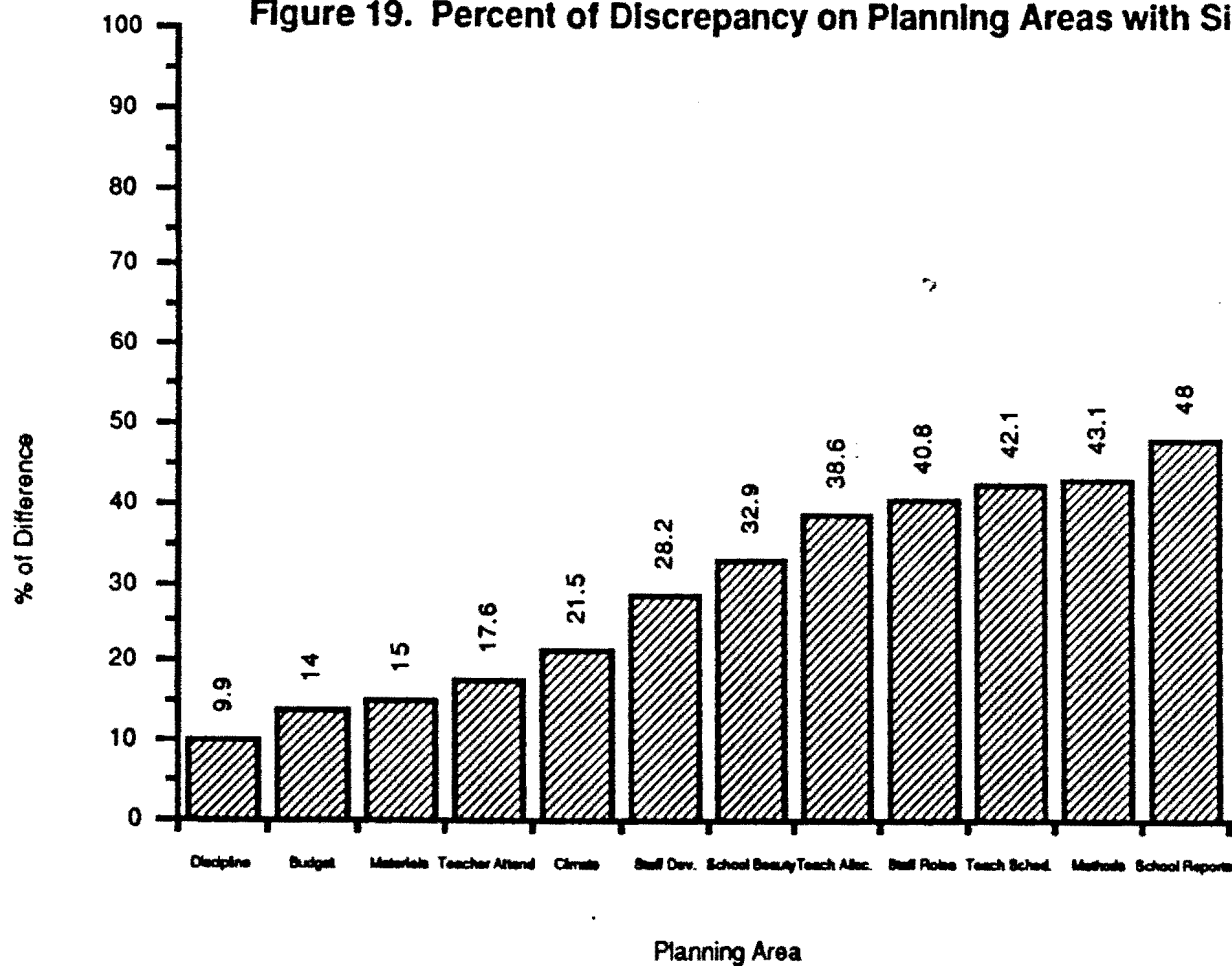


Figure 20. Involvement In Reading Planning Stages

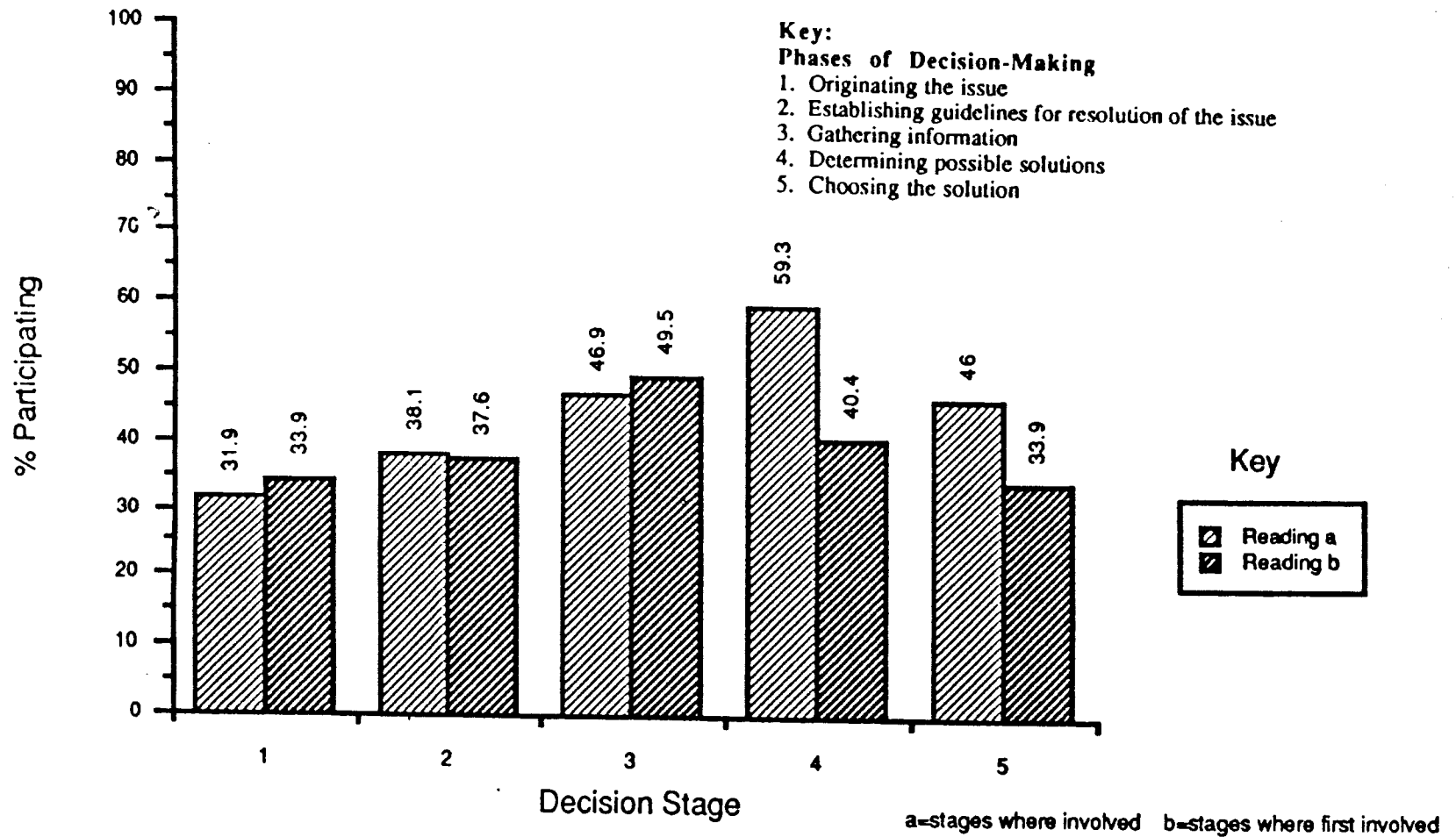


Figure 21. Involvement In Mathematics Planning Stages

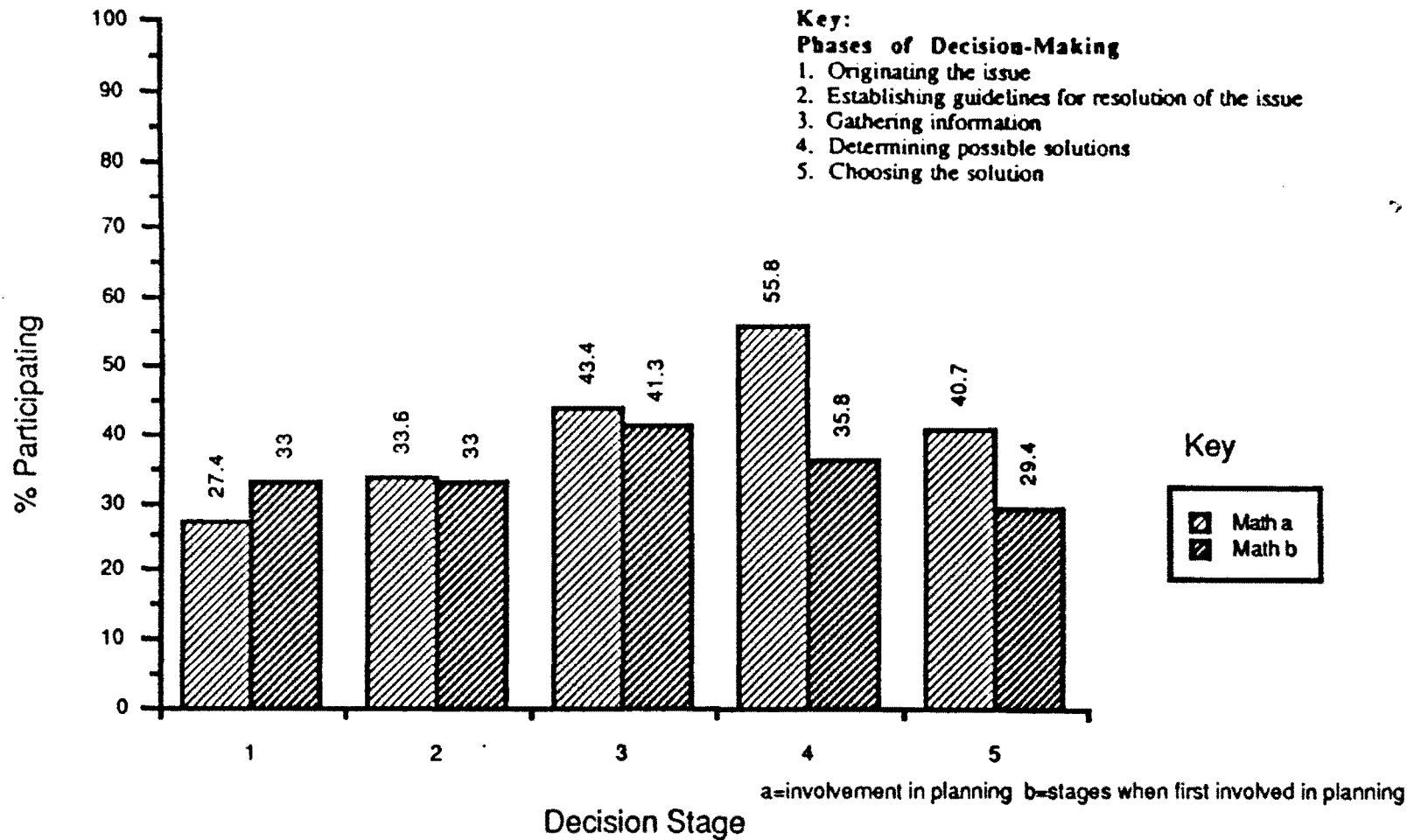


Figure 22. Involvement in Student Attendance Planning Stages.

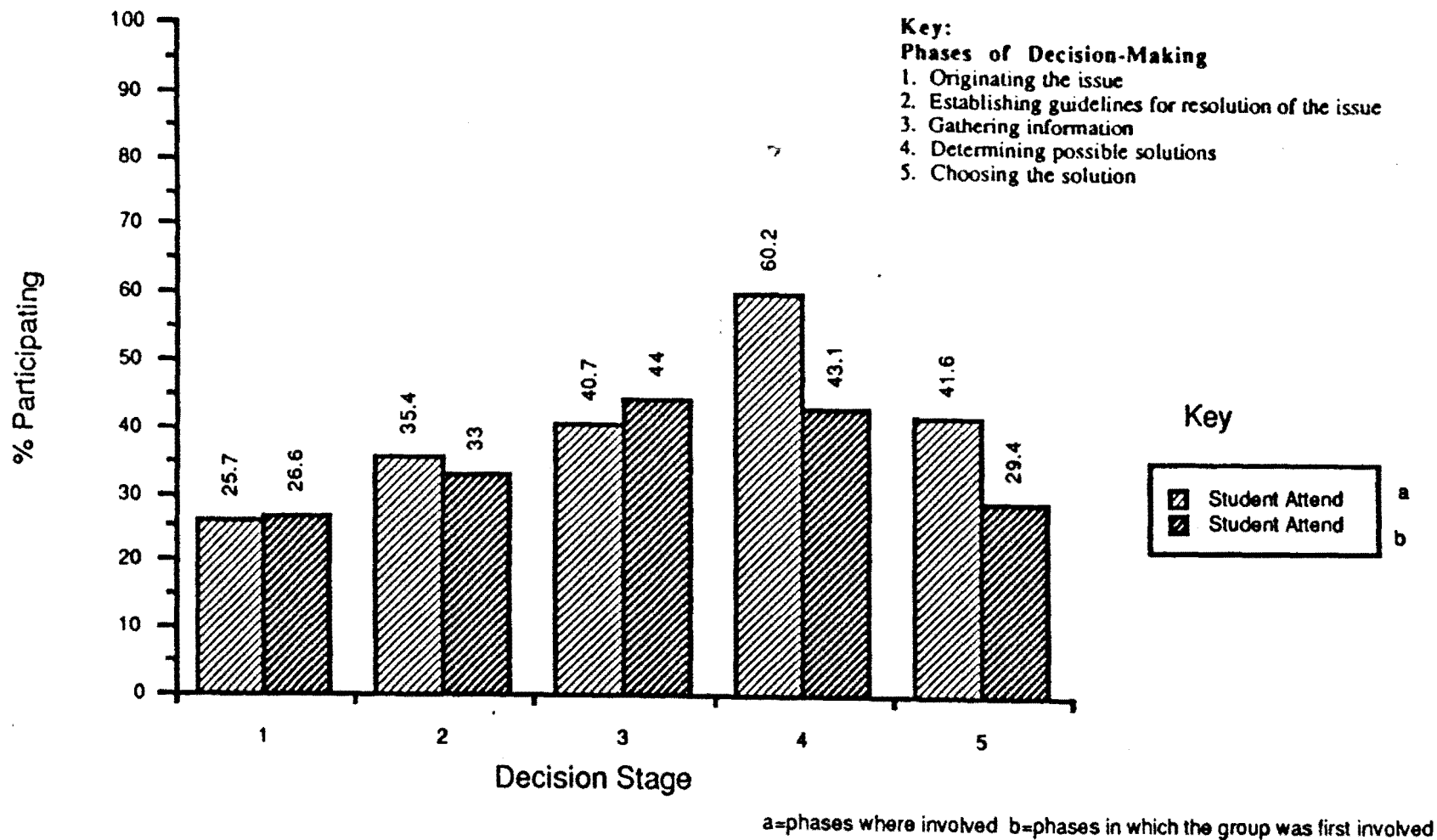


Figure 23. Involvement in Teacher Attendance Planning Stages

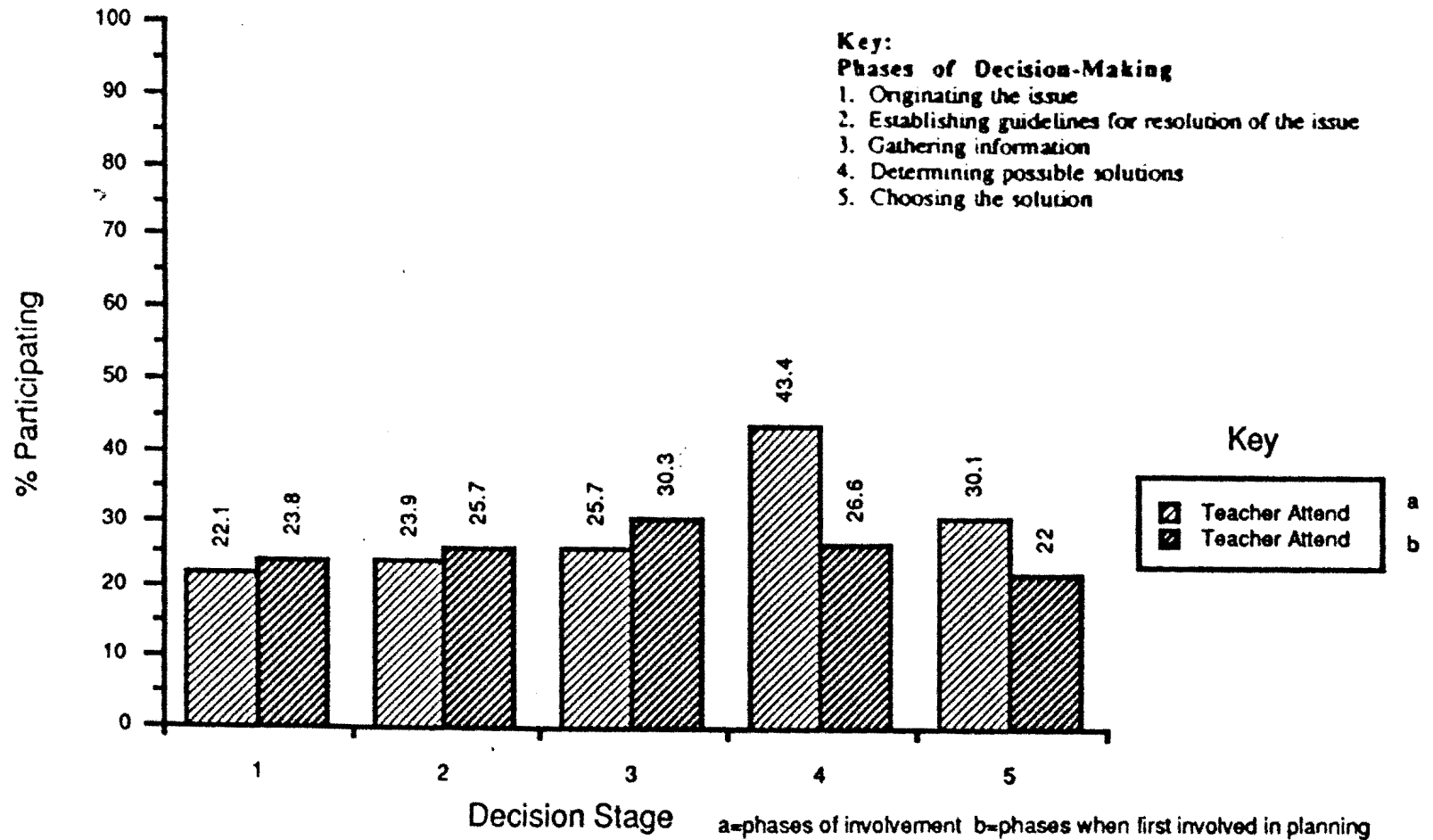


Figure 24. Phases When Involved in Planning.

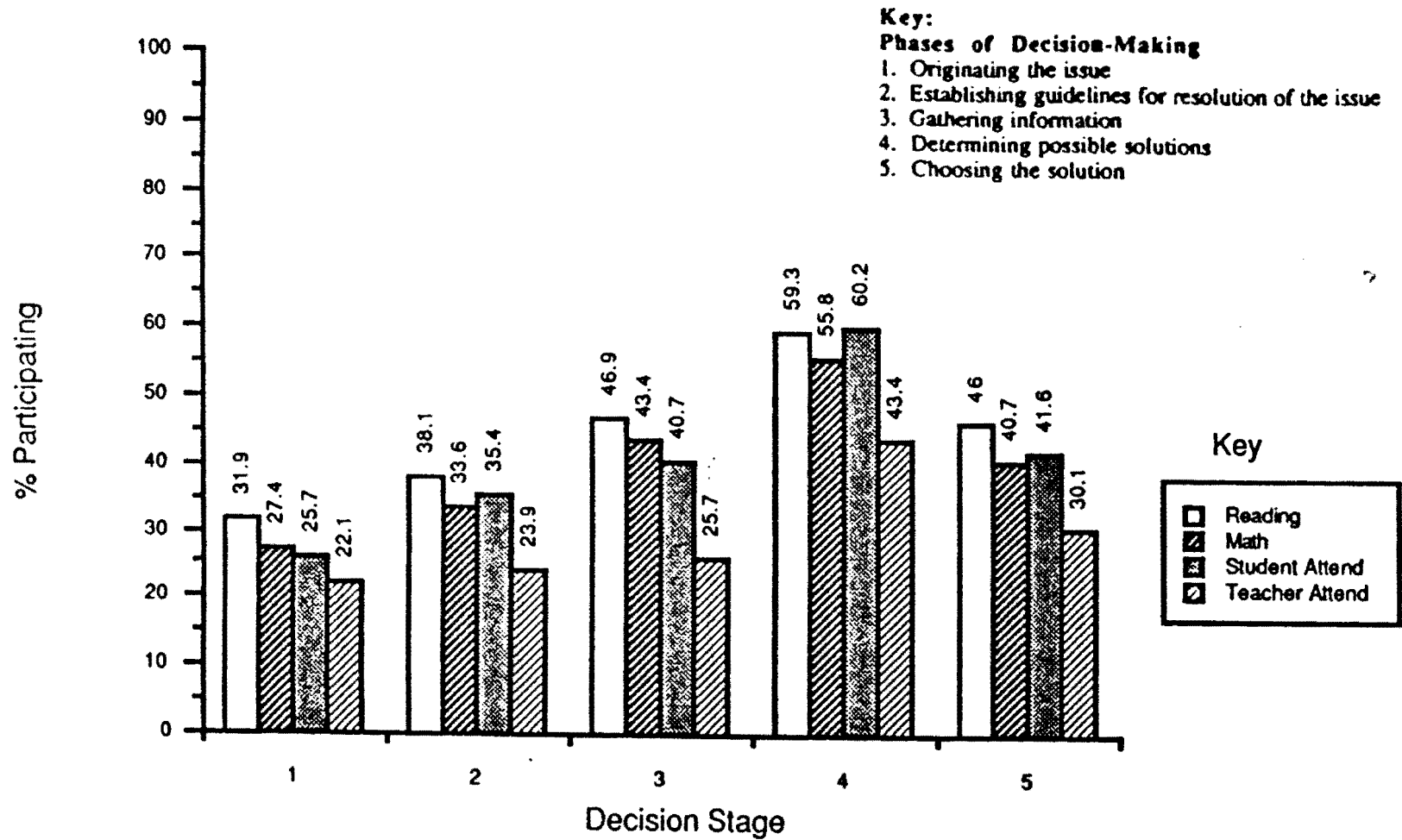
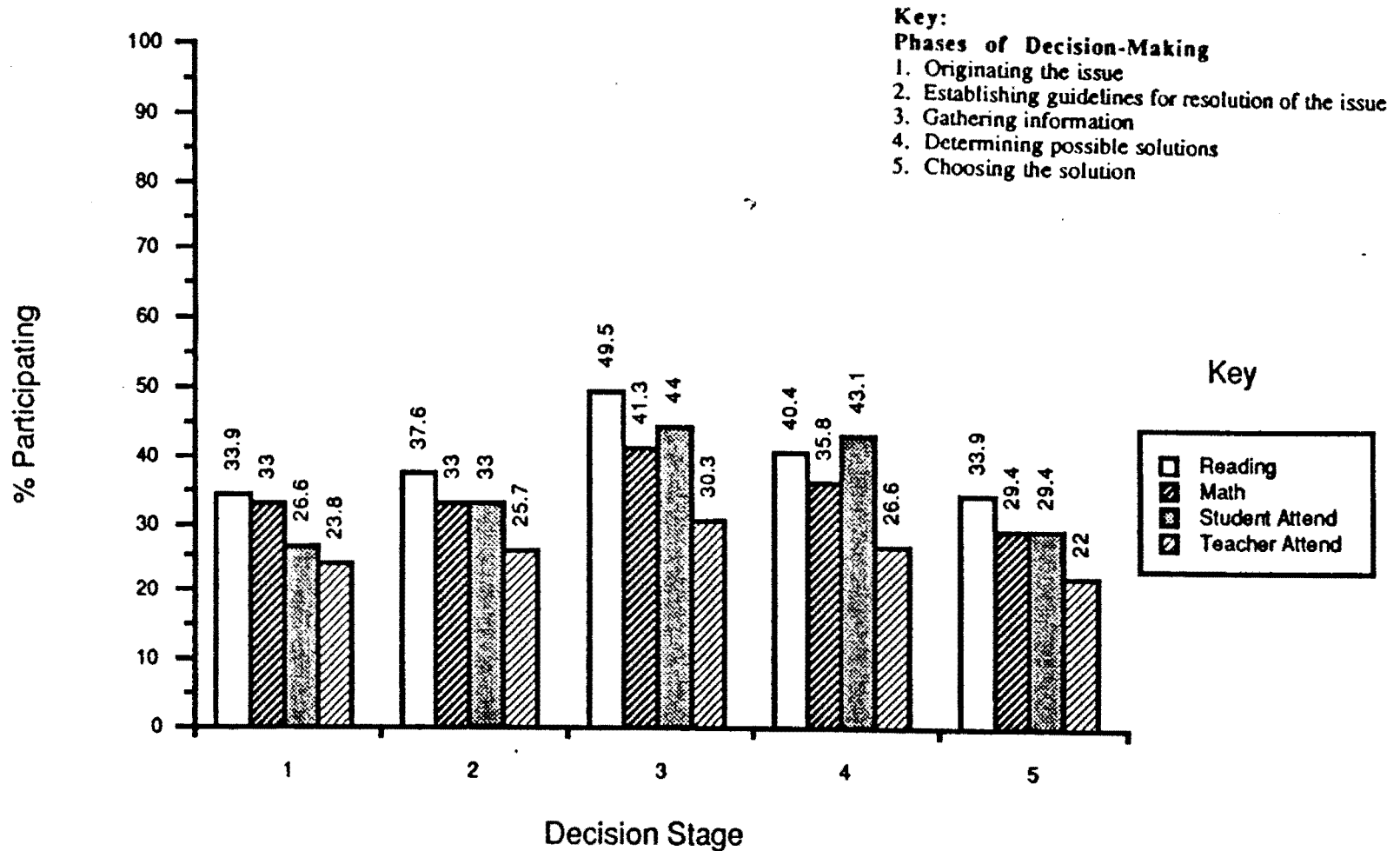


Figure 25. Planning Phases When the Group First Became Involved In Planning.



TABLES

Table 7. Position Analysis By Planning Area for the Extent Respondents Participated.

Area	P1A	P1T	P1P	P2A	P2T	P2P	P3A	P3T	P3P
1	13.6	0	0	13.6	0	18.1	9.1	12.5	7.7
2	9.1	0	0	18.2	15.2	0	4.8	15.2	9.1
3	13.0	0	0	13.0	20.0	0	4.4	8.7	9.1
4	9.1	0	0	4.8	14.8	0	4.8	9.8	0
5	0	0	0	10.0	21.8	0	5.0	18.2	18.2
6	0	3.4	0	18.2	25.9	0	9.1	5.2	0
7	4.2	0	0	12.5	34.9	14.3	4.2	9.3	14.3
8	20.0	0	0	35.0	10.0	18.7	0	13.3	0
9	10.5	13.3	0	5.3	24.4	0	10.5	13.3	0
10	4.8	4.3	0	22.7	31.9	0	4.8	8.4	0
11	10.5	0	0	10.5	8.4	0	5.3	16.1	33.3
12	4.4	0	0	4.4	30.4	0	18.0	10.9	14.3
13	9.5	0	0	19.0	11.8	0	4.8	8.8	0
14	4.4	0	0	4.4	18.0	0	8.7	12.0	0
15	4.4	0	0	0	14.3	0	8.7	2.4	0
16	10.5	2.7	0	31.6	21.6	0	0	13.5	0
17	47.8	0	0	4.8	10.3	0	0	3.4	0
	P4A	P4T	P4P	P5A	P5T	P5P	P6A	P6T	P6P
1	0	18.1	15.4	63.6	51.8	69.2	0	3.6	7.7
2	0	13.0	9.1	59.1	50.0	63.6	9.1	8.8	18.2
3	0	2.2	18.2	69.8	64.4	63.6	0	8.7	9.1
4	0	0	20.0	72.7	83.4	20.0	9.1	12.2	60.0
5	5.0	5.4	0	75.0	43.2	81.8	5.0	13.5	0
6	0	6.9	33.3	68.2	56.9	33.3	4.8	1.7	33.3
7	0	4.8	0	79.2	51.2	57.2	0	0	14.3
8	0	0	0	45.0	13.3	33.3	0	63.3	50.0
9	10.5	13.3	37.5	57.9	28.7	37.5	5.8	4.4	25.0
10	0	12.8	11.1	68.2	44.7	66.7	0	0	22.2
11	0	0	0	63.2	41.9	18.7	10.5	33.5	50.0
12	4.4	8.7	0	73.9	47.8	71.4	0	2.2	14.3
13	9.5	8.8	14.3	57.1	44.1	57.1	0	28.5	28.8
14	0	8.0	22.2	82.8	58.0	66.7	0	6.0	11.1
15	4.4	9.5	11.1	82.8	52.4	77.8	0	21.4	11.1
16	5.3	5.4	0	52.8	37.8	0	0	18.9	83.3
17	0	3.4	16.7	38.1	10.3	33.3	9.5	72.4	50.0

Key:

1. Planning for the improvement of reading achievement.
2. Planning for the improvement of mathematics achievement.
3. Planning for the improvement of student attendance.
4. Planning for the improvement of teacher attendance.
5. School budget

6. Textbook and/or instructional materials selection.
7. Student discipline issues.
8. Allocation of teachers or other school staff

9. Determining instructional methods to be used with students.
10. Determining the instructional objectives for the students at this site.

11. Determining the format for school reports on student progress.
12. Determining staff development programs.
13. Determining roles and responsibilities for staff
14. Planning for the improvement of school climate.
15. Planning for school beautification or maintenance.
16. Establishing teaching schedules.
17. Evaluation of school personnel.

Table 8. Position Analysis By Planning Area for the Extent Respondents Wanted to Participate.

	W1A	W1T	W1P	W2A	W2T	W2P	W3A	W3T	W3P
1	4.8	0	0	9.5	25	0	9.5	10	0
2	0	2.8	0	13.6	10.5	0	4.6	10.5	0
3	4.6	0	0	9.1	14.7	0	4.6	8.8	0
4	0	0	0	9.5	9.7	0	4.6	9.7	0
5	0	0	0	19.0	21.6	0	4.8	10.8	0
6	0	0	0	13.6	30.2	0	4.6	7.0	0
7	0	0	0	13.0	38.1	0	4.4	8.3	0
8	15.0	0	0	25.0	16.6	14.3	5.0	15.8	0
9	0	25.6	5.3	0	10.3	10.5	0	15.4	10.5
10	0	9.5	0	58.6	9.5	10.0	7.1	7.1	0
11	0	0	0	18.7	17.6	10.0	25.0	14.7	0
12	0	0	0	12.5	10.9	10.0	12.5	6.7	0
13	0	0	0	37.5	5.7	22.2	0	2.9	0
14	0	0	0	18.6	2.3	8.3	12.5	4.6	0
15	0	0	0	17.6	0	9.1	11.8	2.6	0
16	7.1	2.8	0	35.7	5.6	25.0	21.4	13.9	0
17	20.0	0	0	20.0	12.9	0	0	6.4	0
	W4A	W4T	W4P	W5A	W5T	W5P	W6A	W6T	W6P
1	0	5.0	0	88.9	57.5	78.2	0	2.5	11.1
2	0	2.3	0	77.3	65.6	88.9	4.6	7.9	11.1
3	0	2.9	0	81.8	70.8	90.0	0	2.9	10.0
4	0	0	0	78.2	74.2	50.0	9.5	6.4	50.0
5	4.6	10.8	14.3	71.4	48.0	71.4	0	10.8	14.3
6	0	4.6	20.0	81.8	58.1	60.0	0	0	20.0
7	0	2.8	0	82.6	52.8	85.7	0	0	14.3
8	0	0	0	55.0	34.4	57.2	0	31.2	28.6
9	0	12.8	0	68.7	35.9	73.7	33.4	0	0
10	7.1	4.6	0	57.1	68.7	80.0	0	2.4	10.0
11	0	0	0	58.3	58.8	80.0	0	8.8	30.00
12	12.5	6.5	0	62.5	71.7	70.0	0	2.2	20.0
13	8.2	5.7	0	58.2	65.7	86.7	0	20.0	11.1
14	8.2	4.6	0	62.5	68.4	83.3	0	2.3	8.3
15	5.9	2.8	0	64.7	69.5	72.7	0	2.8	18.2
16	0	0	0	35.7	58.3	50.0	0	19.4	25.0
17	0	3.2	0	50.0	35.5	68.7	10.0	41.9	33.3

Key:

1. Planning for the improvement of reading achievement.
2. Planning for the improvement of mathematics achievement.
3. Planning for the improvement of student attendance.
4. Planning for the improvement of teacher attendance.

5. School budget
6. Textbook and/or instructional materials selection.
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9. Determining instructional methods to be used with students.
10. Determining the instructional objectives for the students at this site.

11. Determining the format for school reports on student progress.
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15. Planning for school beautification or maintenance.
16. Establishing teaching schedules.
17. Evaluation of school personnel.

Table 22. Regression Tables for Null Hypothesis 11 (Ho11).

Variable Name	Coefficient	Std. Err. Estimate	t Statistic	Prob > t
Constant	0.404	0.342	1.181	0.239
inv 4r	0.030	0.101	0.297	0.765
influ 5r	0.322	0.101	3.204	0.002
6 deg sdm	0.060	0.101	0.596	0.560
13 rt	0.002	0.064	0.035	0.971
15r imp	0.376	0.096	3.929	0.000

Source	Sum of Squares	Deg. of Freedom	Mean Squares	F-Ratio	Prob>F
Model	34.953	5	6.991	20.031	0.000
Error	25.477	73	0.349		
Total	60.430	78			

Coefficient of Determination 0.578
 Coefficient of Correlation 0.761
 Standard Error of Estimate 0.591
 Durbin-Watson Statistic 2.230

14r eff	1.000	0.622	0.676	0.426	0.118	0.634
inv 4r	0.622	1.000	0.814	0.392	0.209	0.554
influ 5r	0.676	0.814	1.000	0.450	0.131	0.493
6 deg sdm	0.426	0.392	0.450	1.000	0.004	0.433
13 rt	0.118	0.209	0.131	0.004	1.000	0.133
15r imp	0.634	0.554	0.493	0.433	0.133	1.000

Table 23. Regression Tables for Null Hypothesis 12 (Ho12).

Variable Name	Coefficient	Std. Err. Estimate	t Statistic	Prob > t
Constant	0.547	0.325	1.681	0.093
inv4m	0.033	0.103	0.319	0.749
infl 5m	0.215	0.100	2.143	0.033
6 deg sdm	-0.070	0.096	-0.734	0.528
15m imp	0.575	0.087	6.600	0.000

Source	Sum of Squares	Deg. of Freedom	Mean Squares	F-Ratio	Prob>F
Model	49.611	4	12.403	35.592	0.000
Error	25.090	72	0.348		
Total	74.701	76			

Coefficient of Determination 0.664
 Coefficient of Correlation 0.815
 Standard Error of Estimate 0.590
 Durbin-Watson Statistic 1.987

14m eff	1.000	0.861	0.642	0.194	0.775
inv4m	0.661	1.000	0.849	0.264	0.655
infl 5m	0.642	0.849	1.000	0.302	0.567
6 deg sdm	0.194	0.264	0.302	1.000	0.251
15m imp	0.775	0.655	0.567	0.251	1.000

Table 24. Regression Tables for Null Hypothesis 13 (Ho13).

Variable Name	Coefficient	Std. Err. Estimate	t Statistic	Prob > t
Constant	0.051	0.358	0.143	0.881
inv4sa	-0.003	0.120	-0.026	0.977
influ 5sa	0.101	0.125	0.806	0.571
6 deg sdm	0.107	0.103	1.045	0.300
15 saimp	0.663	0.100	6.643	0.000

Source	Sum of Squares	Deg. of Freedom	Mean Squares	F-Ratio	Prob>F
Model	40.681	4	10.170	27.703	0.000
Error	24.597	67	0.367		
Total	65.278	71			

Coefficient of Determination 0.623

Coefficient of Correlation 0.789

Standard Error of Estimate 0.606

Durbin-Watson Statistic 1.668

14saeff	1.000	0.588	0.558	0.306	0.779
inv4sa	0.588	1.000	0.856	0.285	0.681
influ 5sa	0.558	0.856	1.000	0.294	0.611
6 deg sdm	0.306	0.285	0.294	1.000	0.276
15 saimp	0.779	0.681	0.611	0.276	1.000

Table 25. Regression Tables for Null Hypothesis 14 (Ho14).

Variable Name	Coefficient	Std. Err. Estimate	t Statistic	Prob > t
Constant	0.022	0.409	0.054	0.956
inv 4ta	0.158	0.120	1.321	0.188
infl 5ta	0.155	0.114	1.360	0.175
6 deg sdm	0.020	0.124	0.160	0.868
15ta imp	0.516	0.099	5.201	0.000

Source	Sum of Squares	Deg. of Freedom	Mean Squares	F-Ratio	Prob>F
Model	62.511	4	15.628	30.672	0.000
Error	31.080	61	0.510		
Total	93.591	65			

Coefficient of Determination 0.668
 Coefficient of Correlation 0.817
 Standard Error of Estimate 0.714
 Durbin-Watson Statistic 1.917

14ta Off	1.000	0.706	0.670	0.247	0.761
inv 4ta	0.706	1.000	0.858	0.223	0.648
infl 5ta	0.670	0.858	1.000	0.246	0.577
6 deg sdm	0.247	0.223	0.246	1.000	0.275
15ta imp	0.761	0.648	0.577	0.275	1.000

DISSERTATION APPROVAL SHEET

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The final copies have been examined by the director of the dissertation and the signature which appears below verifies the fact that any necessary changes have been incorporated and that the dissertation is now given final approval by the Committee with reference to content and form.

The dissertation is therefore accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

November 21, 1990
Date


Director's Signature